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









BENJAMIN FRANKLIN



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CONTAINING A RECORD OF THE
HUMAN RACE FROM THE EARLIEST
HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRES-
ENT TIME      

EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY
OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND IN
NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL
GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERA-
TURE, SCIENCE AND ART   

COMPLETE IN EIGHT VOLUMES

Compiled, Arranged
and Written by.....

ISRAEL SMITH CLARE

Author of "ILLUSTRATED UNIVERSAL HISTORY,"
and "COMPLETE HISTORICAL COMPENDIUM"

REVIEWED, VERIFIED AND ENDORSED BY THE PROFESSORS OF
HISTORY IN FIVE AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES, WITH AN INTRO-
DUCTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF HISTORICAL STUDY

BY

MOSES COIT TYLER, A.M., L.H.D.

PROFESSOR OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

"NOT TO KNOW WHAT HAPPENED BEFORE WE WERE BORN IS
TO REMAIN ALWAYS A CHILD; FOR WHAT WERE THE LIFE
OF MAN DID WE NOT COMBINE PRESENT EVENTS WITH THE
RECOLLECTIONS OF PAST AGES?"—CICERO

Vol. VIII.—Recent Foreign History.

ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS, PORTRAITS AND VIEWS



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1898

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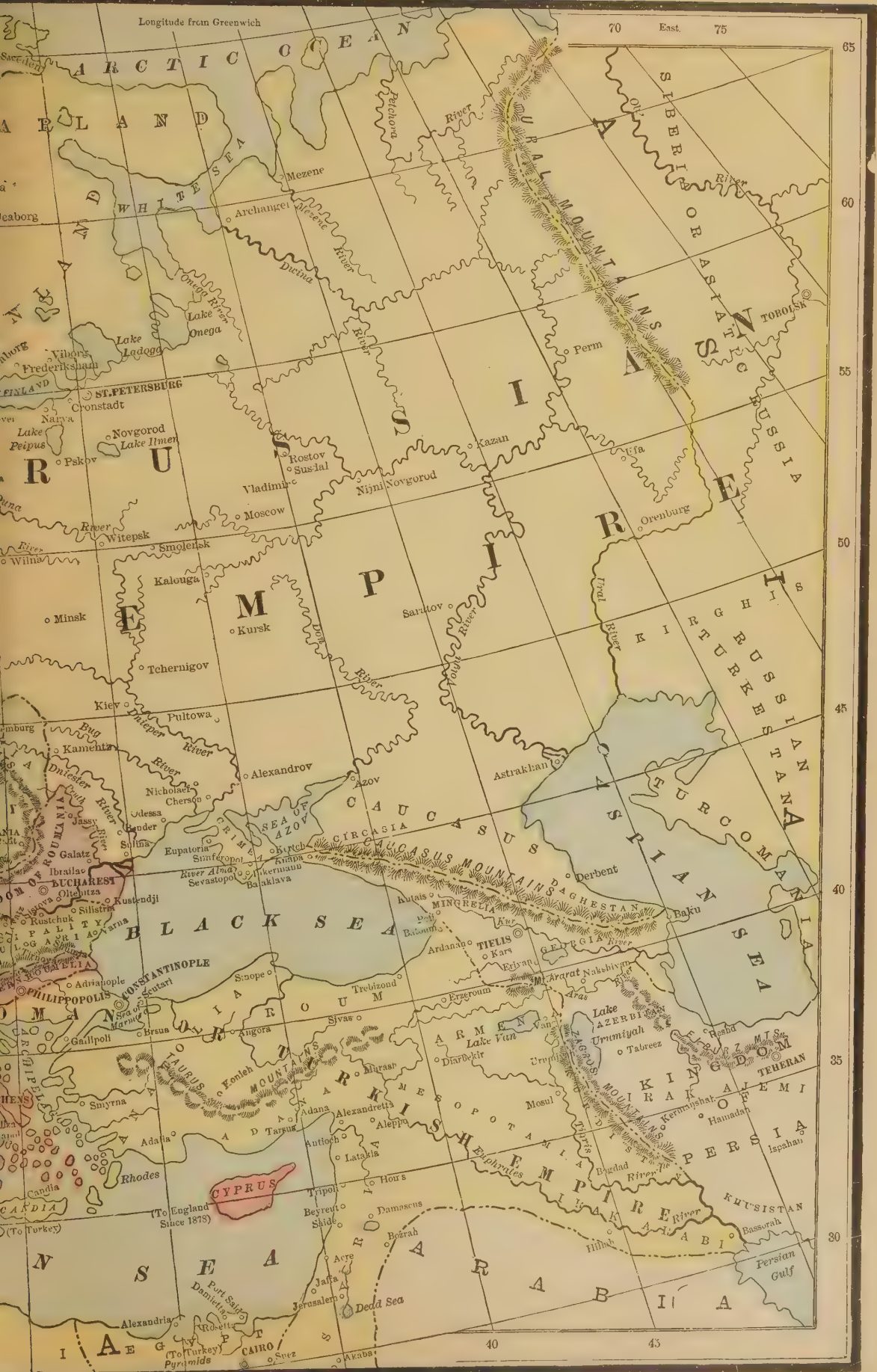


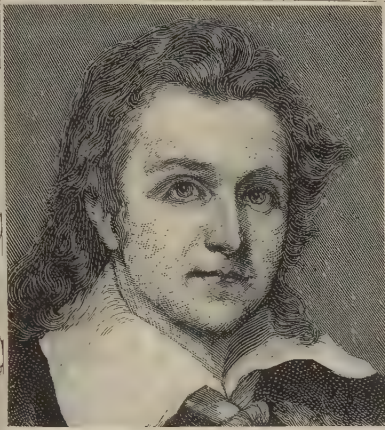
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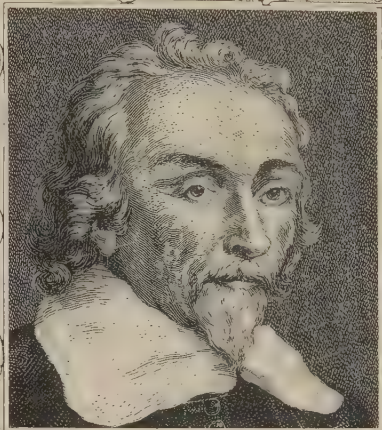
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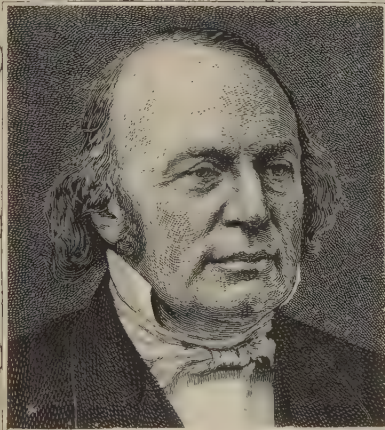




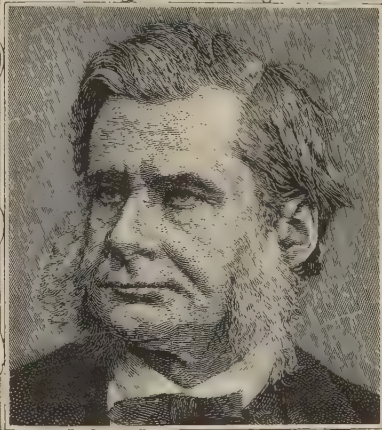
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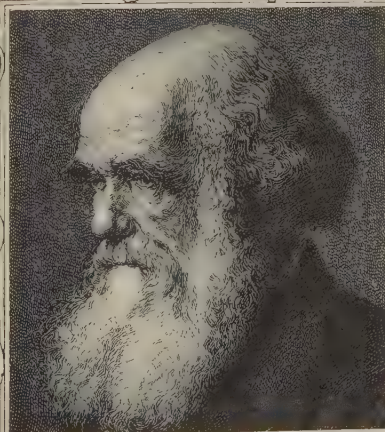
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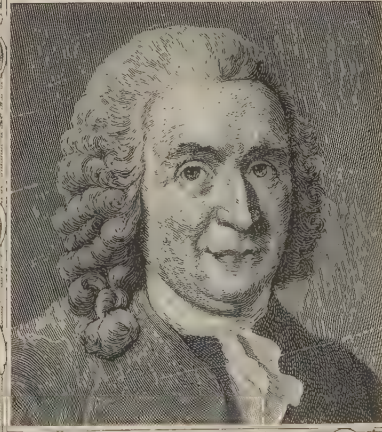
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T. H. HUXLEY



CHARLES R. DARWIN



CARL VON LINNÉ

NATURALISTS AND PHYSICIANS.



BATTLE OF SOLFERINO.

CHAPTER V.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION V.—ENGLAND AND RECENT EUROPEAN WARS.



EARLY in the second half of this century, England lost her then greatest statesman and her greatest warrior. Sir Robert Peel, to whom Great Britain was indebted for many improvements in her commercial and economic policy, was thrown from his horse in St. James Park and so fatally injured that he died in a few hours, July 2, 1850. Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, the great "Iron Duke," died suddenly at Walmer Castle, Dec. 14, 1852—the anniversary of Washington's death. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral with the most impressive obsequies.

In 1851 the first International Exhibition, or World's Fair, of people and exhibits from all parts of the globe, was held in the *Crystal Palace*, an immense building of iron and glass erected for the occasion in London. The electric telegraph between England and France was now completed. This new and important invention was now in general use both in America and Europe.

After repeated defeats, Lord John Russell's Whig Ministry was succeeded by a Tory or Conservative Cabinet under the Earl of Derby; but the financial measures of the new Administration gave great dissatisfaction; and, after a short tenure of less than a year, a hostile vote in the House of Commons led to the resignation of Lord Derby's Ministry at the beginning of 1853; whereupon a coalition Ministry, composed of Whigs, Radicals and Free-trade followers of Sir Robert Peel, with the Earl of Aberdeen as Premier, came into power. As many of the new Ministers were men of recognized ability, great expectations were

formed concerning them. In this Ministry, the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone held the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, and was therefore the leader of the Administration in the House of Commons.

In the meantime the British had been engaged in wars in Asia and Africa. A second war between the English East India Company and the Burmese, in 1852, added new territories to the British dominion in India. In South Africa the English had been engaged in hostilities with the wild Kaffirs since 1847, but in 1853 the Kaffirs were subdued and brought to terms.

RISE OF THE SECOND FRENCH EMPIRE.

Upon assuming the office of President of the French Republic, Louis Napoleon publicly avowed the principles of his government to be strictly republican. The different parties in the French National Assembly were the Legitimists, or adherents of the elder branch of the Bourbons; the Orléanists, who desired the placing of the heir of Louis Philippe upon the throne; the Bonapartists, or Imperialists, who desired the restoration of the French Empire; the Red Republicans; and the Moderate Republicans, or friends of the existing constitution.

From the beginning there was a lack of harmony between the executive and legislative branches of the government, the National Assembly having no faith in the republican professions of the President. The Assembly restricted the right of suffrage and the freedom of the press, and in many other ways encroached upon the rights of the French people. As already noticed, in 1849,

a French army under General Oudinot was sent to Rome to overthrow the Republic which had been established there. The French constitution of 1848 provided for its revision by the National Assembly during the last year of the Presidential term, and it also made the President ineligible to reelection before an interval of four years. Louis Napoleon desired to have it revised and so altered as to render him eligible to reelection; but the Assembly, by a large vote, in 1851, refused to revise it. The President, in his message, in November, 1851, advised the Assembly to extend the right of suffrage; but the Assembly rejected a proposition for that purpose. Soon afterward a proposition

tween the Elysée and the Tuileries; and the leading members of the Assembly and the chief military leaders, whom Louis Napoleon knew were opposed to his ambitious schemes, were seized in their beds and shut up in prison. M. Thiers and Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier and Lamoriciere, and other prominent characters, were arrested by detachments of police, assisted by the guards, and were imprisoned in the chateau of Vincennes. At the dawn of day the Parisians were surprised to find the walls everywhere covered with placards containing the following decree: "In the name of the French people, the President of the Republic decrees: 1. The National As-

sembly is dissolved. 2. Universal suffrage is reestablished; the law of 31st of May is repealed. 3. The French people are convoked in their communes from the 14th to the 31st of December. 4. The state of siege is decreed in the whole of the first military division. 5. The Council of State is dissolved. The Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of this decree. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte." During the day some of the members of the National Assembly met at the residence of M. Daru, declared the President guilty of treason, and decreed his deposition; but no sooner had they signed the decree than they were seized by the military and conducted to prison. None of the journals but those that supported the President were permitted to be printed and distributed.

This bold act of usurpation, dignified

by the title of the *Coup d'Etat*, was completely successful. The republican constitution was overthrown, and Louis Napoleon was a monarch in all but in name.

On the 2d of December no resistance was made to the President's usurpation; but about ten o'clock on the morning of the 3d M. Baudin, a representative of the people, appeared at the head of a mob in the Rue St. Antoine. The arrival of the military restored order, and M. Baudin and two



LOUIS NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

was offered threatening the President with impeachment if he should seek a reelection contrary to the provisions of the constitution.

The breach between the President and the National Assembly was rapidly widening; and finally Louis Napoleon determined to crush at one blow all opposition to his will, by a bold stroke of state policy. About five o'clock in the morning of the 2d of December, 1851, the principal streets of Paris were occupied by troops, who were massed be-

other representatives were punished with death. On the following day, December 4, 1851, barricades were erected in many of the streets of Paris; but forty-eight thousand troops were brought to the city, and at noon they swept the Boulevards, fired upon the buildings, killed many innocent people, and put an end to all resistance before night. The troops gave no quarter to the insurgents, and more than two thousand persons were massacred by the troops in the streets and prisons; and twenty-six thousand persons were banished to French Guiana and Algeria. Victor Hugo and General Changarnier were afterward permanently banished.

In the eastern departments of France, the rural population rose in great strength against the usurpation; but, the army remaining faithful to the President, the insurrection was suppressed in a few days.

On Saturday and Sunday, December 20 and 21, 1851, elections were held throughout France; the question submitted to the nation being whether or not Louis Napoleon should hold the office of President ten years longer, with the power of forming a new constitution for France, on the basis of universal suffrage. No other candidate was allowed to be named. The army voted first; and, as was to be expected, its vote was nearly unanimous in favor of Louis Napoleon. The entire majority in favor of the lengthened Presidential term was six million seven hundred and sixty-one thousand six hundred and fifty-nine votes. On New Year's Day, 1852, the result of the election was celebrated in the French capital with all possible magnificence. Seventy rounds of artillery were fired at the Invalides at ten o'clock in the forenoon; the *Te Deum* was sung at noon in the Church of Notre Dame, the President himself being present; and a splendid banquet was given at the Tuileries in the evening, at which four hundred persons participated.

On the 14th of January, 1852, the new constitution proposed by Louis Napoleon was decreed. The constitution entrusted the executive authority to Louis Napoleon for ten years, and clothed him with almost

absolute power. The legislative power was vested in a *Senate*, composed of the most gifted men in France; a *Council of State*, to originate and enact laws; and a *Corps Legislatif*, chosen by universal suffrage, to discuss and enact laws.

The great end of all Louis Napoleon's ambition was the restoration of the French Empire. By means of newspaper agents and a mercenary press, the President prepared the masses of the French people to pronounce at the ballot-box in favor of the reëstablishment of the imperial throne. After a tour through France—during which he was everywhere greeted with shouts of "Vive l'Empereur!"—he caused the French people to vote for the restoration of the French Empire. The election resulted in a majority of seven million six hundred and eleven thousand and thirty-five votes in favor of imperialism; and on December 2, 1852—exactly one year after the *Coup d'Etat*—Louis Napoleon became "*Napoleon III., by the grace of God, and by the will of the people, Emperor of the French.*" Thus ended the Second French Republic; and thus was established the *Second French Empire*, under Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais. A large number of persons who had actively opposed Louis Napoleon's assumption of imperial power were arrested on the charge of treason, and imprisoned, or banished to Algeria or Cayenne.

The new Emperor's next movement was the consummation of a marriage for the perpetuation of his dynasty; and, as all his proposals to foreign courts for the negotiation of a match were rejected, he selected for his bride Eugenie de Montijo, Countess of Teba, a Spanish lady, who was not related to any reigning family. On the 2d of January, 1853, the announcement of the approaching nuptials was made to the French Senate. On the 29th of the same month the civil marriage was celebrated at the Tuileries, and on the 30th the religious ceremonies were celebrated with great pomp in the Cathedral of Notre Dame.

For eighteen years, 1852-1870, Napoleon III. was the most prominent figure in European politics; and he sought to secure his dynasty by gratifying the desire of the French people for military glory, although he had declared in a speech at Bordeaux early in 1853: "*L' Empire c' est la paix*," "The Empire is peace." Napoleon III. greatly enlarged and beautified Paris, and France enjoyed material prosperity during his reign of eighteen years.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The balance of power established by the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, was disturbed for the first time by a war between Russia and Turkey begun in the fall of 1853, through the interference of the Czar Nicholas in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had been disturbed for several years by domestic insurrection. A revolt had broken out in Montenegro in 1852, and the insurgents offered a valiant resistance to the Ottoman armies. The counsels of Sultan Abdul Medjid had for many years been controlled by English influence, which was ably represented at Constantinople by Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, formerly Sir Stratford Canning, whom the Czar Nicholas spitefully called "the English Sultan."

The Turks had a prophecy that their dominion in Europe would only last four hundred years from its establishment. Early in 1853—the year when the Turkish Empire in Europe was prophesied to end—the Czar Nicholas made secret proposals to England to unite with him in a partition of the spoils of the "Sick Man of Europe." Great Britain rejected the Czar's overtures, and entered into a close alliance with the other Great Powers, especially with France under the Emperor Napoleon III., who, in his desire to gratify his army by a foreign war, sustained England in her policy on the Eastern question.

For a long time a dispute with regard to the Holy Places at Jerusalem had raged at Constantinople between the Greek and Romish Churches, Russia supporting the claims of the Greek, and France those of

the Romish Church. After mustering a large fleet and army at Sevastopol, the Czar Nicholas sent Prince Menschikoff to Constantinople with a peremptory message demanding for the Czar the control of the Holy Places at Jerusalem and the protectorate over the Sultan's Greek Christian subjects. This insolent demand was justly regarded as incompatible with the dignity of the Sultan as an independent sovereign; and, by the advice of the English and French ambassadors at Constantinople, the demands of the Czar were rejected and his extravagant pretensions denied; but the Sultan, by a *hatti sheriff*, confirmed all the privileges of his Christian subjects.

The Emperor of Russia had been actuated in his policy by his resentment toward Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, whose ascendancy at Constantinople was constantly thwarting the movements of the Russian ambassadors. The firmness of the British ambassador, and his power to summon the British fleet from Malta, contributed vastly to allay a panic at the Turkish capital, and to encourage the Ottoman Porte to resist the insolent demands of the Emperor Nicholas.

Immediately after the demand of the Russian Autocrat had been rejected by the Ottoman Porte, sixty thousand Russian troops invaded the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Sultan demanded the evacuation of his dominions, threatening, in case of a refusal, a declaration of war. The fleets of France and England were ordered to the Dardanelles; while England, France, Austria and Prussia vainly endeavored to bring about an adjustment of the dispute by negotiation. The arrogance of Russia prevented a peaceful solution of the difficulty; and, on the 5th of October, 1853, the Turkish government declared war against Russia. On the 14th, October, 1853, the fleets of Great Britain and France, at the request of the Sultan, passed the Dardanelles.

In the latter part of October, 1853, the Turkish forces crossed the Danube for the purpose of expelling the Russians from Moldavia and Wallachia. Under the command of their skillful general, Omar Pasha, the

Turks defeated the Russians at Oltenitza. On the 13th of November, 1853, the Turkish fleet at Sinôpé, on the southern coast of the Black Sea, was suddenly and unexpectedly attacked and destroyed by the Russian fleet. The town was also bombarded by the Russian fleet, and four thousand Turks were slain. Before the close of the year the British and French fleets were ordered into the Black Sea to protect the Turks.

The war extended to the Caucasus region, where the Circassian warrior-prophet Schamyl, having received arms and instructions from the Turks in November, 1853, issued from his mountain fastnesses, and defeated thirty thousand Russians under Prince Woronzoff in a bloody battle, compelling them to retreat to Tiflis. The Circassians under Naib Mehemet Emir attacked and defeated a Russian army of twenty thousand men between Tiflis and Dariel, routing them with heavy loss.

In January, 1854, the Russians were repulsed in a four days' assault upon the Turkish lines at Kalafat, and were compelled to retreat.

The Czar Nicholas still rejected all proposals for an amicable settlement of the dispute. He even refused to answer a note addressed to him by the English and French governments demanding the evacuation of the Turkish principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, threatening war in case of his rejection of the demand or his refusal to answer it. As all hopes of peace were thus dispelled, England and France, closely in alliance with Turkey, declared war against Russia, at the close of March, 1854; but Austria and Prussia remained neutral. The Czar of Russia issued a counter-declaration of war, April 11, 1854.

An allied English and French army of ninety thousand men, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, was sent to the assistance of the Turks; and a powerful Anglo-French naval armaent, under Sir Charles Napier, was dispatched to the Baltic sea. The Russians, under Prince Gortschakoff, their commander-in-chief, crossed the

Danube; the Ottoman forces retreating in good order before the invaders.

On the 22d of April, 1854, the allied English and French fleets bombarded the Russian commercial town of Odessa, on the Black Sea; and on the 16th of August, 1854, the Anglo-French fleet under Sir Charles Napier in the Baltic captured Bomarsund, in the Aland Isles, by assault. During the summer the Turks under Mussa Pasha successfully defended Silistria against ninety thousand Russians under Prince Paskevitch, finally compelling them to raise the siege, and, after defeating them at Giurgevo, forced them to evacuate the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia.

Although the special cause of the war was thus removed, England and France determined to maintain the contest until the Emperor of Russia should be deprived of the means for future aggressions by the destruction of the forts which guarded the harbor and the immense magazines of Sevastopol.

In September, 1854, an expedition composed of English, French and Turkish troops landed at Eupatoria, in the peninsula of the Crimea, and, on the 20th of that month, gained a brilliant victory over the Russians under Prince Menschikoff at Alma. A few days afterward Marshal St. Arnaud died, and the command of the French army was assigned to General Canrobert. The siege of Sevastopol commenced on the 17th of October, 1854, when the allies opened their first bombardment on the town, which was gallantly defended by the Russian garrison under Colonel Todleben for nearly a year.

The Russians sent large reinforcements to their army in the Crimea for the purpose of compelling the allies to evacuate the peninsula. On the 25th of October, 1854, occurred the famous battle of Balaklava, in which the English Light Cavalry Brigade was almost totally destroyed in a reckless charge upon the strong Russian position. This memorable charge was made by the Earl of Cardigan, in obedience to a mistaken order, down a long valley swept from both sides and from both ends by the Russian cannon.

"Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon in front of them
 Volleyed and thundered.
Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well,
Into the jaws of death,
Into the mouth of hell,
 Rode the six hundred."

Large bodies of Russian troops continued to pour into the Crimea for the purpose of relieving the beleaguered fortress of Sevastopol; and on the 5th of November, 1854, was fought the bloody battle of Inkermann, in which eight thousand English troops held their ground firmly against fifty thousand Russians under Prince Menschikoff for seven hours, when the appearance of a French force of six thousand men under General Bosquet soon decided the battle against the Russians, who were driven with heavy loss into the fortress of Sevastopol.

The allied armies suffered more from disease than from the casualties of battle; and the hardships of the British troops were aggravated by the mismanagement of their commissariat, which left brave soldiers dying from hunger, sickness and cold within a few miles of abundant supplies of clothing, medicines and stores. This sad condition of the British army produced such popular indignation in England that on motion of Mr. Roebuck the House of Commons passed a resolution of inquiry by a majority of one hundred and fifty-seven; whereupon Lord Aberdeen and his colleagues resigned, January 29, 1855. After some delay a new Co-

alition Administration under Lord Palmerston was formed; but a slight difficulty in regard to the committee of investigation into the affairs of the British army in the Crimea soon led to the resignation of the Peelite Tories, thus leaving Lord Palmerston at liberty to form a purely Whig Cabinet.

The dreadful sufferings of the British soldiers in the Crimea were alleviated through the merciful ministrations of Miss Florence Nightingale, who headed a band of volunteer nurses from England, thus winning for herself a fame which has passed her name into history with those who have devoted themselves to the cause of humanity.

On the 2d of March, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his son ALEXANDER II., who declared his resolution of adhering to the policy of his father. A conference composed of representatives of England, France, Turkey and Russia was held at Vienna, in the spring of 1855,



LORD PALMERSTON.

for the purpose of bringing about a restoration of peace; but, as Russia rejected the demand of the allied powers that the war-vessels of all nations should be excluded from the Black Sea, the efforts for peace failed; and Sardinia joined the allied powers in their war against Russia, and sent fifteen thousand troops to join the allied army in the Crimea.

The English plenipotentiary at Vienna, Lord John Russell, had offered such humiliating sacrifices for the sake of peace that popular indignation in England forced him to retire from Lord Palmerston's Ministry.

The Empress Eugenie gave birth to a son, March 14, 1855—an event hailed throughout France with most extravagant demonstrations of joy. An attempt on the Emperor's life was made as he was riding near the *Barrier de l'Étoile*, in Paris, April 28, 1855.

During the spring of 1855 the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie visited Queen Victoria in England, and during the summer of the same year the British queen returned the compliment by visiting the Emperor of the French at Paris. During that year the second World's Fair, or International Exposition, was held at Paris.

In the meantime hostilities were prosecuted with vigor in the Crimean peninsula. On the 17th of February, 1855, the Russians assaulted the intrenched camp of the Turks at Eupatoria, but were repulsed after a fierce engagement. A severe battle between the Russians and the French occurred on the 22d of March, 1855, in which the Russians lost over two thousand men, and the French six hundred men. The second bombardment of Sevastopol commenced on the 9th of April, and continued for several days. The incompetent Canrobert was superseded in the command of the French forces by the able and energetic General Pelissier. The third bombardment of Sevastopol, which commenced on the 6th of June, resulted in giving the French possession of the Mamelon, while the English captured the Round Tower. On the 18th of June—the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo—the French assailed the Malakoff Tower, while the English at the same time stormed the Redan. Both attacks were repulsed. On the 28th, June, 1855, Lord Raglan died, and was succeeded in the command of the English forces by General Simpson. On the 16th of August sixty thousand Russians were repulsed in an assault upon the French and the Sardinians at Tchernaya. In the meantime a British fleet had entered the Sea of Azov, captured Kertch and Yenikale, and destroyed vast quantities of stores and provisions.

While the events just related were occur-

ring in the Crimean peninsula, hostilities were being prosecuted in other quarters. On the 9th of August, 1855, the combined English and French fleet in the Baltic, under Sir Charles Napier, commenced an attack upon Sweaborg, which was continued until the 11th, without effecting any important result.

On the 5th of September, 1855, commenced the fourth bombardment of Sevastopol. On the 8th the French captured the Malakoff, after a furious assault; but at the same time the English were repulsed in an attack upon the Redan. The fall of the Malakoff rendered a further defense of the place useless; and on the 9th, September, 1855, the Russians evacuated the southern side of Sevastopol, and left the town and the harbor in the possession of the allies.

On the 15th of October, 1855, General Bazaine, with fifteen thousand French and four thousand English troops from the allied army in the Crimea, landed at Kinburn, and captured that post after a fierce bombardment. Late in November the Turks under Omar Pasha achieved a glorious victory at the river Ingour, when they forced a passage over the stream, and compelled the Russians to evacuate their position and retreat to Kutais.

Important events occurred in Asiatic Turkey. On the 29th of September, 1855, the Turkish forces, under the command of the English General Williams, repulsed an attack of the Russians upon the town of Kars; and the place was defended successfully until the 28th of November, 1855, when the Turkish garrison was compelled to surrender, and the town fell into the hands of the Russians.

Early in 1856 an armistice was proclaimed. Soon afterward the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, France, Sardinia, Turkey and Russia assembled in Paris; and a treaty of peace was agreed upon on Sunday, March 30, 1856. By this treaty the Czar Alexander II. relinquished the ambitious pretensions of the House of Romanoff; Turkey was admitted into the European States-System, and its independence was guaran-

reed by the Powers; Servia and her native prince, though tributary to the Sultan of Turkey, were placed under the protection of the Five Great Powers; the Sultan's Christian subjects were to be secured in certain privileges; the Danube and the Black Sea were thrown open to the commerce of all nations; all vessels of war were excluded from the Black Sea; the Russian forts and arsenals on the Black Sea were to be destroyed; the Russian fortress of Nicolaieff was to be dismantled; and the Czar was to

ENGLAND'S WARS IN ASIA.

In the year of the termination of her war with Russia, 1856, England became involved in wars with China and Persia. The quarrel with China grew out of a trifling incident. A Chinese lorcha, or small vessel, was fired upon by the Chinese for some infraction of their police regulations. As the vessel was said to have borne the British flag, the English regarded the action of the Chinese authorities as a national insult, though it had never been proven that the



BOMBARDMENT OF CANTON.

renounce all interference in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire. The eagle's quill mounted with gold and gems, with which the treaty was signed, was presented to the Empress Eugenie of France. A salute of one hundred guns at the Hotel des Invalides proclaimed the tidings of peace to the people of the French capital. Thus closed the *Crimean War*, in which more than one million of men perished in battle and of disease.

vessel was under British colors. The British demanded reparation from the Chinese commissioner, Yeh, but he rejected their demand. Yeh's refusal brought on hostilities, and the navies of England and the United States became involved with the Chinese. France also sent a naval armament against China. Great Britain sent Lord Elgin as an envoy to negotiate a peace, and a large expedition accompanied him to support his pretensions. France also sent an ambassador

thither, and William B. Reed was sent out on the part of the United States. The English and French bombarded and took Canton with its two million inhabitants, December 28, 1857. Although Commissioner Yeh was made prisoner, the Chinese Emperor showed no disposition to yield.

In the spring of 1856 the Earl of Dalhousie was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Viscount Canning. In the course of a few months the British declared war against the Shah of Persia, and an Anglo-Indian expedition under Generals Outram and Havelock proceeded to Bushire, on the Persian Gulf. After a few insignificant conflicts, in which the Persians were put to flight, the Shah Nasr-ed-Din was forced to make peace by accepting the terms of the British; and by a treaty signed at Paris, March 4, 1857, he conceded all the British demands, one of which was that the British should have a station at Bushire. The British troops then returned to India.

SEPOY MUTINY IN BRITISH INDIA.

But in 1857 a struggle of far greater magnitude than the Persian and Chinese wars employed the military strength of the British Empire—namely, the war produced by the mutiny of the Sepoys, or Hindoos in military service of the East India Company; and Generals Outram and Havelock returned from Persia in time to encounter the greatest peril that had ever menaced England's dominion in the East. Thus a century after Colonel Robert Clive had laid the foundation of England's empire in India, by his decisive victory at Plassey, was the first serious attack made to overthrow that powerful dominion.

In the century from 1757 to 1857 the British Indian Empire had grown by conquest and annexation until it embraced the whole of Hindoostan, except the native states of Nepaul, Bhootan and Cashmere in the North, and the few French and Portuguese colonies on the coast. Thus almost all of that vast and populous country, extending from Cape Comorin on the south to the Himalayas on the north, and from the

frontiers of Burmah on the east to the Indus and the borders of Afghanistan on the west, and containing a population of two hundred millions, was ruled by British law and British influence.

For a long time the Mohammedans of India had been dissatisfied with their subordinate position. When, in 1849, Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of British India, compelled the titular King of Delhi to exchange the fortress of Delhi for the royal palace of the Kootub, the hatred of the Delhi Mohammedans against the British government was increased. When the Kingdom of Oude was annexed to the British Indian Empire, in 1856, many of the Sepoys comprising the Bengal army who were natives of Oude were aroused to the highest pitch of indignation; and they succeeded in uniting all the Mohammedan sects in India, with the view of freeing themselves from British power.

Circumstances soon occurred which favored the cause of the Mohammedans of India. It had been rumored among the Hindoos that the British government had resolved to compel all its subjects to embrace the Christian religion, and abolish the distinctions of caste which prevail among the Hindoos. Early in 1857 the East India Company armed its Hindoo soldiers with the Enfield rifles, for which cartridges greased with pig's and cow's fat were used. The Hindoos are forbidden by their religion to taste animal food; and, as the ends of the greased cartridges must be bitten off, the Sepoys believed that by using them they would become defiled, lose their caste and be bound to adopt the religion of their masters. Mohammedan emissaries secretly aroused the dissatisfaction of the Hindoos, for the advancement of their own rebellious schemes.

During the month of April, 1857, many of the regiments composed of Sepoys in the Bengal army manifested a mutinous spirit. The 19th and 34th regiments, the Oude irregular infantry, and a part of the 3d light cavalry at Meerut, were the first to rise in rebellion. Other Sepoy regiments followed

their example; and before long the whole Hindoo portion of the Bengal army, about one hundred and twenty thousand men, stood in armed opposition to the British government. The rebellion was purely a mutiny and not a popular insurrection.

On the 11th of May, 1857, a party of mutineers from Meerut fiendishly massacred all the English residents at Delhi; but a small English force under the gallant Lieutenant Willoughby blew up the arsenal to prevent it from falling into the hands of the rebels.

At Cawnpore three hundred English troops under Sir Hugh Wheeler, and five hundred women and children, were attacked and besieged by a body of mutineers under Nana Sahib, a Mahratta prince. When Nana Sahib found that he could not take the place by force, he offered the garrison and the women and the children a safe passage to Allahabad, if they would evacuate Cawnpore; but no sooner had they embarked on boats in the river than they were fired upon by the treacherous mutineers, and many of their number were killed. One hundred and fifty who had surrendered were put to death, and the women and children were massacred soon afterward.

At Lucknow, Sir Henry Lawrence, at the head of an English force, defeated a large body of rebel Sepoys; but he was afterward besieged in the residency at that place, and was mortally wounded in a sally at the beginning of July, 1857.

The greatest excitement prevailed in England on the arrival of intelligence of the mutiny of the hitherto loyal Bengal army and the fiendish atrocities perpetrated by the mutineers. Within four months thirty thousand troops were sent from Great Britain to India for the suppression of the Sepoy rebellion and the full restoration of British authority in Hindoostan, and Sir Colin Campbell was sent to take the chief command of the British forces in India.

General Havelock, with British and loyal Hindoo troops, marched to the relief of the English garrison under Sir Hugh Wheeler at Cawnpore. He reached that place after

marching one hundred and twenty-six miles and fighting four engagements with the mutineers, and after Nana Sahib had treacherously massacred the women and children, as already stated. When Havelock approached Cawnpore, Nana Sahib and his insurgent band fled; but they were pursued, and were defeated eight times on the banks of the Ganges by the force under Havelock. The Sepoy regiments at Dinapore mutinied on the 25th of July, 1857; and, having fled from the station, they were pursued and defeated by Major Eyre of the Bengal artillery.

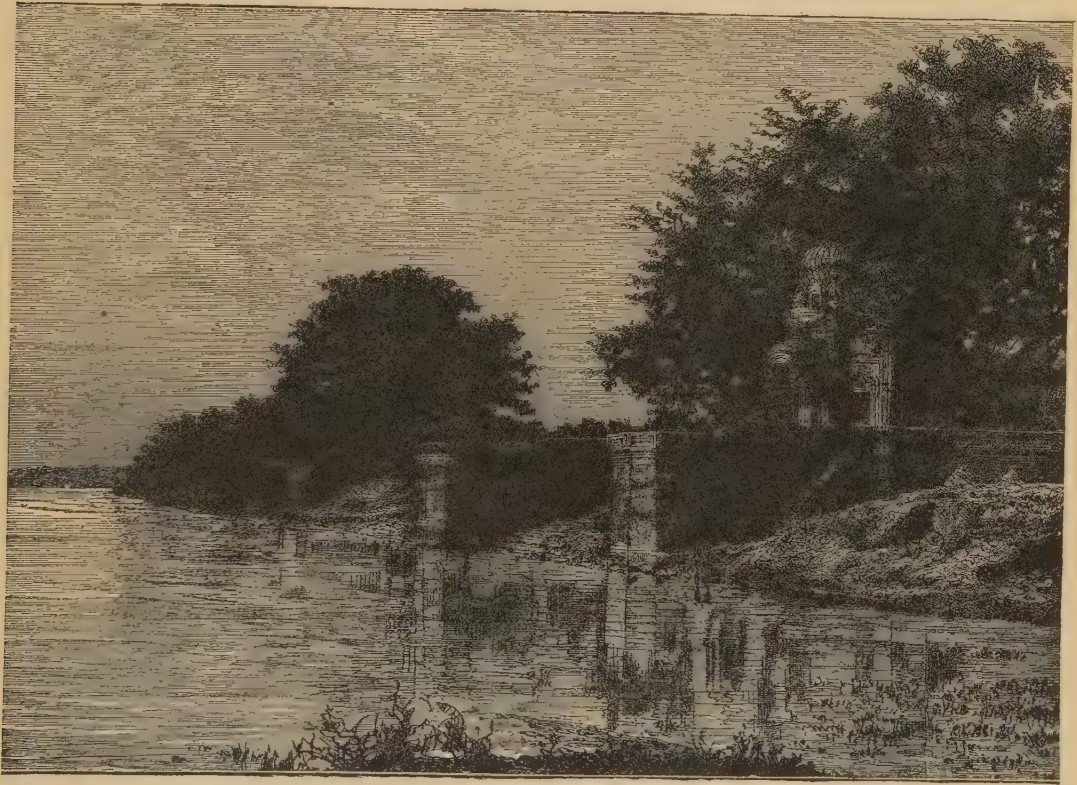
In the latter part of August, 1857, the British force before Delhi, which had quietly watched the insurgents who had held possession of that famous city, was reinforced by English and Sikh troops; and on the 25th, August, 1857, the mutineers were defeated at Nujuffghur with heavy loss. On the 7th of September the British commenced besieging Delhi with vigor. The whole British force did not exceed four thousand men. On the 14th of September, General Wilson, the British commander, divided his army into four columns. Two of these columns carried the Cashmere and Water bastions by storm on the same day. The Cashmere gate was blown up, when the third column joined the other two in the assault; and before the close of the day the British were masters of a considerable portion of the city. The fourth column was repulsed in an attack upon the city. On the 15th, September, 1857, the British shelled the palace and battered the magazine; and on the 16th a British storming party rushed forward, whereupon the insurgent artillerymen fled in dismay, leaving the British in possession of six pieces of cannon. On the 17th and 18th the British gained several important advantages; and after several more assaults the mutineers entirely evacuated the city of Delhi, which came into the military possession of the English on the 20th of September, 1857. A great part of the town was laid in ruins and filled with corpses, and numbers of captured mutineers were put to a cruel death.

Since June, 1857, a large body of English

troops and women and children had been besieged in the residency at Lucknow by fifty thousand insurgents. While marching to their relief, General Havelock defeated forty thousand insurgents in the battle of Mungarwar, on the 21st of September, 1857. After a forced march of four days, Havelock and his troops appeared at Lucknow, on the 25th of September, and relieved the brave garrison. After severe fighting the rebel Sepoys were repulsed in all their assaults, but they still continued the siege with vigor.

which place, after a vigorous siege, fell into the hands of the British on the 17th of March, 1858.

After the fall of Lucknow, Gwalior became the stronghold of the Sepoy rebellion; but in June, 1858, that strong place was compelled to the yield to the British arms; after which the war assumed a guerrilla character, and small bands roamed over various parts of India until the close of 1859, when peace was fully restored and British authority was completely reëstab-



SLAUGHTER GATE AT LUCKNOW.

On the 12th of November, 1857, Sir Colin Campbell arrived at Lucknow with a strong English force, and took the garrison, along with the women and children, to Cawnpore.

In December, 1857, Cawnpore was attacked by twenty-five thousand rebel Sepoys; but the timely arrival of the British force under Sir Colin Campbell saved the place, and obliged the mutineers to retire, after a severe engagement. Soon afterward Sir Colin Campbell laid siege to Lucknow,

which place, after a vigorous siege, fell into the hands of the British on the 17th of March, 1858. After the fall of Lucknow, Gwalior became the stronghold of the Sepoy rebellion; but in June, 1858, that strong place was compelled to the yield to the British arms; after which the war assumed a guerrilla character, and small bands roamed over various parts of India until the close of 1859, when peace was fully restored and British authority was completely reëstab-

to atoms. A very important result of the mutiny was the transfer, in the summer of 1858, of the government of British India from the East India Company to the English crown, by act of the British Parliament.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

The general election in France in 1857 for members of the Corps Legislatif returned but half a dozen deputies who were opposed to the Emperor Napoleon III. Among these opposition deputies was General Cavaignac, whose subsequent premature death relieved the Emperor of a dangerous opponent in the Corps Legislatif. A four days' conference between the Emperors of France and Russia was held at the palace of the King of Würtemberg at Stuttgart, in September, 1857; the Queen of Greece being present.

In January, 1858, while the carriage containing the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie was passing the Italian Opera House in Paris, three hollow projectiles were aimed at the Emperor's person, killing and wounding a number of persons. The Italian refugees, Orsini and Pierri, who made this attempt at regicide, were punished with death.

It was believed that the conspiracy to assassinate the Emperor Napoleon III. originated among the foreign refugees in England; and Lord Palmerston introduced a bill into Parliament for the alteration of the law regarding conspiracies, for the purpose of guarding against similar plots in the future. The excited language of the French press and the French army led to the belief that Lord Palmerston's bill had been presented in compliance with the demands of the French government. Great offense was thus given to the Liberal party in England, which was composed of Whigs and Radicals, and which had taken the place of the Whig party as the opponent of the Tories, or Conservatives. Lord Palmerston was censured for too much subserviency to the dictation of the Emperor of the French in this precautionary measure, and his bill was rejected by the House of Commons. Lord

Palmerston's credit suffered greatly as a result of this popular impression in England. It seemed for some time that the amicable relations between England and France would be interrupted by a war between the two nations, and a force of one hundred and fifty thousand volunteers was raised in England. The storm of popular indignation forced Lord Palmerston to resign, whereupon a Conservative Ministry under Lord Derby came into office for a few months.

The common sense of the English and French nations averted the danger of war between them. Queen Victoria was present at the ceremonies of the opening of the great basin in the harbor of Cherbourg; and on August 4, 1858, Queen Victoria and Prince Albert were entertained by the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie on board the French man-of-war *Bretagne*; after which the royal and imperial party landed and inspected the fortifications of Cherbourg. Her Britannic Majesty and her royal consort left France the next day, under a triple salute; and the fêtes lasted until the 8th, August, 1858, when they were closed by the dedication of the statue of Napoleon. The Parliamentary elections in England in 1859 restored Lord Palmerston to power, and he remained Prime Minister of Great Britain until his death in the fall of 1865.

WAR OF ITALIAN NATIONALITY.

Count Cavour—the able statesman and Prime Minister of King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia—devoted himself to the cause of Italian nationality and freedom, and his efforts were seconded by the Emperor Napoleon III. of France.

During the reception of foreign ministers, at his palace, on New Year's Day, 1859, the Emperor Napoleon III., in speaking to the Austrian ambassador to France about the affairs of Italy, made some remarks which were regarded by all who heard them as implying a threat of war; and it soon appeared that France was arming on an extensive scale. A marriage was negotiated between Prince Napoleon, the Emperor's cousin, and the Princess Clotilda, daughter of Victor

Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia, who was an avowed opponent of Austria with respect to the question of Italian independence; and events indicated the speedy approach of war.

The King of Sardinia, supported by France, was now making earnest preparations for war. Austria demanded that Sardinia should immediately disarm. Great Britain and Russia endeavored to avert hostilities by negotiation, but Austria's demand for the immediate disarmament of Sardinia was opposed by the other powers. Austria then proposed that all the powers should disarm. This was agreed to by Russia, Prussia, England, France and Sardinia; but the proposition that the Italian states should be represented in a congress of the Five Great Powers was opposed by Austria, which still insisted on the immediate disarmament of Sardinia. This demand was still objected to by the other powers; and, as Austria would not recede from the position which she had taken, all hopes for an amicable settlement of the difficulty were dispelled.

In the latter part of April, 1859, Austria sent to Sardinia an ultimatum, demanding the immediate disbandment of her Italian volunteers, allowing only three days for a reply, and threatening war in case of a rejection of the demand. The King of Sardinia rejected the Austrian ultimatum; and the Chambers of his kingdom, which he immediately summoned, conferred upon him dictatorial powers. On the 26th of April, 1859, the Austrian army, in three divisions, numbering together one hundred and twenty thousand men, crossed the Ticino and invaded Sardinia.

When intelligence of the Austrian invasion of Sardinia reached France, a manifesto prepared by the French Emperor was presented in the Corps Legislatif, declaring that France would stand by Sardinia. Large bodies of French troops were now pushed forward into Italy with the utmost haste; and on the 10th of May the Emperor Napoleon III., leaving the government of France in the hands of the Empress Eugenie as regent, left Paris to take command

of the French troops in person. On the 12th, May, 1859, he reached Genoa, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

After having exhausted the country which they had invaded, the Austrians fell back slowly toward Lombardy. The first battle of the *War of Italian Nationality* was fought on May 20, 1859, at Montebello—the same place where on the 9th of June, 1800, the French under General Lannes defeated the Austrians. After desperate fighting the Austrians were defeated with considerable loss. The French, who were commanded by General Forey, lost less than seven hundred men in killed and wounded. Among the killed on the side of the French was General Beuret. On the following day, May 21, 1859, a slight engagement occurred between the Austrians and the left wing of the allied army under General Cialdini.

A body of Italian volunteers under General Garibaldi invaded Lombardy and captured Varese, where they repulsed an attack of the Austrians on the 26th of May. After a fierce conflict on the 27th, the Italians took possession of Como, the Austrians retreating to Camerletta, where they were again defeated and compelled to continue their retreat. On the 29th of May the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria left Vienna for the seat of war, and arrived at Verona on the 31st. On the 29th the Sardinians crossed the Sesia and forced the Austrian works at Palestro, capturing two pieces of artillery and some small arms and prisoners. On the 31st twenty-five thousand Austrians were severely repulsed in an attempt to recover Palestro. On the 1st of June a French force under General Niel expelled the Austrians from Novara, after an insignificant conflict. The Emperor of the French entered Novara at five o'clock in the evening of the same day, meeting with an enthusiastic reception.

On the 4th of June, 1859, was fought the great battle of Magenta, in which one hundred thousand French and Sardinians under General MacMahon were engaged. The Austrians were defeated with the loss of twenty-seven thousand men in killed, wound-

ed and prisoners. After the battle, the Emperor of the French and the King of Sardinia entered Milan, where they were welcomed with the warmest enthusiasm. Napoleon III. published a proclamation to the Italian people, declaring his intention of securing to Italy nationality and independence; and Victor Emmanuel issued a proclamation to the people of Lombardy, declaring that country united with Sardinia.

On the 8th of June occurred the battle of Melegnano, which lasted nine hours, and in which thirty thousand Austrians were engaged. The Austrians were defeated with the loss of thirty-two hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners. On the 24th of June, 1859, was fought the famous battle of Solferino, in which the contending forces on each side numbered about one hundred and forty thousand men, and in which the Emperor Napoleon III. and King Victor Emmanuel commanded their troops in person. This sanguinary conflict raged from five o'clock in the morning until late in the afternoon, and resulted in the utter defeat of the Austrians, who were compelled to make a hasty retreat.

The rapid successes of Napoleon III. excited alarm in Germany; and Prussia and the Germanic Confederation were preparing to take part in the war as allies of Austria, thus checking the Emperor of the French in the midst of his career of victory, and obliging him to conclude a hasty peace.

An armistice was agreed to on the 8th of July, 1859; and on the 11th of the same month a treaty of peace was signed at Villa Franca between the Emperors of France and Austria. The treaty was concluded on the following basis: The formation of the Italian Confederation, under the honorary presidency of the Pope; the cession of Lombardy by Austria to France, in trust for Sardinia; and Venetia, although retained by Austria, to constitute an integral part of the Italian Confederation. The King of Sardinia was dissatisfied with this treaty; and his Prime Minister, Count Cavour, immediately resigned. The Emperor Napoleon III. now left Italy, and arrived at his palace

of St. Cloud on the 17th of July. A definitive treaty of peace was agreed upon at Zurich, in November, 1859.

RISE OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

The Peace of Villa Franca was very far from satisfying the desire for Italian nationality, and the Emperor of the French was severely censured for permitting the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena to return to their dominions. King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia refused to enter into a scheme for an Italian Confederation; and Tuscany, Modena, Parma and the Papal State of Romagna petitioned the Sardinian king to annex them to his dominions. The King of Sardinia proceeded with great caution in acceding to this request. A popular vote in Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna, in March, 1860, resulted in overwhelming majorities in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia. Upon the annexation of the Romagna, Pope Pius IX. excommunicated the invaders of his dominions, without mentioning any one by name; but it was understood that this anathema was aimed at King Victor Emmanuel II. and his supporters.

Austria viewed these changes in Italy without offering any opposition. It was well known that France, though anxious for peace, would unite with Italy against any European power that should attempt to thwart a free expression of the will of the Italian people. France and her Emperor were the sincere friends of Italy; but Napoleon III. had an eye to his own interests, and demanded the cession of Savoy and Nice by Sardinia to France as a reward for French aid in the struggle for Italian nationality. The question of the cession of the provinces to France was submitted to a vote of their inhabitants, and was ratified by their votes in April, 1860.

King Ferdinand V. of Naples died in 1859, and was succeeded by his son FRANCIS II., a pupil of the Jesuits, and who soon showed that he could become as cruel a despot as his tyrannical father. The Sicilians, exasperated at his tyranny and cruelty, and encour-

aged by the success of their kinsmen on the Italian mainland, broke out into open revolt at Palermo, Messina and Catania, in March, 1860. It was expected that Sardinia would favor the outbreak in Sicily, but King Victor Emmanuel II. and Count Cavour both considered it most prudent not to interfere. The Sicilians, however, received aid from another quarter.

General Garibaldi, eluding the vigilance of the Sardinian government, sailed from Genoa with a force of two thousand men, May 5, 1860. He landed at Marsala, and proclaimed himself Dictator of Sicily "in the name of Victor Emmanuel of Italy." He took Palermo with his little band of volunteers, and defeated the troops of King Francis II. of Naples at Melazzo—a victory which gave him possession of all Sicily except Messina, which remained in the possession of the Neapolitan troops.

Francis II. of Naples now appealed to Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia to put a stop to Garibaldi's attack upon his kingdom. The King of Sardinia, though he had secretly connived at Garibaldi's expedition, declared that he was not responsible for that leader's attack upon the Kingdom of Naples. Soon afterward Victor Emmanuel II., who feared the tendency of Garibaldi's republican sympathies, ordered him not to take any steps against Naples until the people of Sicily should vote in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia. Garibaldi refused to obey this order, and crossed from Sicily to the mainland of the Kingdom of Naples with his followers at Spartivento on the night of August 20, 1860. The "Hero of the Red Shirt" pushed on, defeated the Neapolitan troops at Reggio and San Giovanni, and advanced toward the city of Naples. King Francis II. fled from his capital to Gaëta in a Spanish man-of-war, November 7, 1860; and the next day Garibaldi entered Naples a conqueror.

Many exiled Neapolitan patriots had taken advantage of the troubles of King Francis II. to return to their country, and Garibaldi found a provisional government

organized in Naples when he entered the city. Great efforts were made to induce Garibaldi to withhold his conquests from the King of Sardinia, and the Neapolitan republicans hoped to found a republic in Southern Italy. Their schemes caused Count Cavour considerable anxiety. The Papal States were likewise causing some annoyance because of the guerrilla warfare which the irregular troops of Pope Pius IX. maintained against Sardinia, and Count Cavour warned the Pope that if those outrages did not cease immediately the Piedmontese army would invade the papal dominions. The Emperor Napoleon III. formally protested against Count Cavour's threat, but that was a mere formality. As the French Emperor was the sincere friend of Italian unity and nationality, he was ready to aid the Italians if they were attacked by any other European power. As Count Cavour's threat was unheeded by the Pope, a Piedmontese army under General Cialdini marched into the Papal States, and captured Urbino, Perugia and a number of other towns.

In the meantime Garibaldi was joined by a number of volunteers in Naples; and he defeated the army of King Francis II. of Naples in a battle on the Garigliano, in October, 1860. King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia now entered the Kingdom of Naples to secure the fruits of Garibaldi's victories, and Garibaldi hailed him as "King of Italy." The people of Naples and Sicily voted by an overwhelming majority in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia, and their wishes were gratified. Several European powers expressed their displeasure at these changes; but none felt disposed to make war on their account, particularly as a war with Italy on this question meant a war with France likewise. The British government, under Lord Palmerston, openly declared its sympathy with the Italian people.

In 1861 all the states of Italy, except the papal dominions, the small republic of San Marino, and the Austrian province of Venetia, were united into one monarchy called the *Kingdom of Italy*; the first Italian Par-

liament, which met at Turin, in February, 1861, having proclaimed King VICTOR EM-MANUEL II. of Sardinia *King of Italy*.

Thus far all had been attended with enthusiasm, and there had been no trouble so far as the Italian people were concerned in establishing the Kingdom of Italy; but difficulties now gathered thick and fast about King Victor Emmanuel. Count Cavour and General Garibaldi could not agree; and the "Hero of the Red Shirt" retired to his home in the island of Caprera, and his army of volunteers disbanded. Messina in Sicily, and Gaëta on the mainland of the old Kingdom of Naples, held out against King Victor Emmanuel. Gaëta was defended by Francis II. of Naples in person, or rather by his young queen, Francis II. himself being an imbecile. The Italian people were discontented, as they believed that Garibaldi, whom they idolized, had not been properly treated by King Victor Emmanuel.

The policy which Victor Emmanuel had pursued in Sardinia toward the convents and other religious bodies was now put in force in the Neapolitan provinces, giving great offense to the superstitious people of that region. Brigandage prevailed in the Abruzzi districts, and was encouraged by the priests, as the brigands declared that they fought for King Francis II. When these brigands were defeated they would seek refuge in the Papal States, and it was charged that they were furnished with arms by the papal authorities. In the fall of 1860 they became so bold and active that Naples itself was not safe, and the entire region was kept in a state of terror.

In February, 1861, Francis II. of Naples fled from Gaëta to Rome, and Gaëta surrendered to the Italian forces. About the same time Generals Cialdini and La Marmora broke the power of the brigands of Southern Italy. The Neapolitans soon perceived the wisdom of the measures of the Italian government, and all classes among them were becoming conciliated by Count Cavour's beneficent reforms. Confidence in the "honest king" returned, and Italian affairs again assumed a hopeful aspect.

In the summer of 1861 the able statesman and Prime Minister, Count Cavour, died; and his death was an irreparable loss to King Victor Emmanuel and the now-unified Italian nation. He had been the originator of most of the measures that had given freedom and unity to Italy, and there was no one really capable of filling his place. His successor as Prime Minister of Italy was Baron Ricasoli.

All parties in Italy now longed for the annexation of the Papal States and Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy. Garibaldi was resolved upon the forcible annexation of Rome to the Italian kingdom; and Rattazzi, the successor of Ricasoli as Victor Emmanuel's Prime Minister, hoped to profit by Garibaldi's efforts to secure Rome as the capital of united Italy. Count Cavour would have commenced by arranging the matter with the Emperor Napoleon III., who was the nominal protector of the Holy See. But Rattazzi was blind to the necessity of conciliating the Emperor of the French, whose troops constituted the garrison of Rome, and was astonished to find the French Emperor resolved to crush Garibaldi's movement if the Italian government did not do so. Thus Rattazzi was obliged against his will to take sides against the very project which he had encouraged.

Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers in Sicily and landed in Italy. He defeated an Italian force under General Cialdini at Reggio, September 28, 1862; but he was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner by an Italian army under General Pallavicini at Aspromonte, September 29, 1862. The wounded and captive Garibaldi was conveyed a prisoner to Spezzia. He declared in his defense that he had attacked the soldiers of Italy against his will, and that he had been betrayed by Rattazzi, whose incompetence was responsible for the occupation of Rome by a French garrison. Garibaldi's declaration aroused such a storm of popular indignation in Italy that Rattazzi was driven from office. Garibaldi was conveyed to his island home in Caprera, and King Victor Emmanuel granted a general

amnesty to his followers. The failure of Garibaldi's expedition made the Italian people more determined to unite Rome and Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy.

In September, 1864, a convention was concluded between Italy and France by which the French Emperor agreed to withdraw his garrison from Rome in order to give Pope Pius IX. time to organize a military force for his own defense. By this convention the French evacuation of Rome was to be completed at the end of two years, when all French intervention in Italian affairs was to cease. In consideration of this agreement, the King of Italy pledged himself to prevent any attack on the Pope's temporal power. That power was evidently approaching its end, and would fall to pieces as soon as the protection of French bayonets was withdrawn. The new Kingdom of Italy would then be free to profit by the fall of the papal power, which she had bound herself not to hasten.

In September, 1864, the capital of Italy was removed from Turin to Florence—a wise measure, as it placed the seat of the Italian government in a more central part of the new kingdom, where it would be safer from the attacks of Austria than at Turin, and where it was much nearer to Rome, to which it would be removed when the time arrived for that grand consummation of all Italian hopes.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH WARS IN ASIA.

In the meantime England and France had been prosecuting wars in Asia. In 1858 Russia and the United States united with England and France in endeavoring to force China to negotiate more liberal treaties with the Western powers. The action of the Chinese authorities was unsatisfactory, and the English and French forces attacked and captured the forts at the mouth of the Peiho river, and advanced to Tien-tsin, fifty miles above the mouth of that river. The Chinese government then yielded, and concluded treaties with Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, stipulating for the residence of foreign ambassadors at Peking, for the opening of several other Chinese

ports besides the five named in the Treaty of Nankin, for trade and travel under certain conditions in the entire Chinese Empire, for the free navigation of the river Yangtsekiang, and for the settlement of the transit-dues question. China paid to Great Britain an indemnity of five-and-a-half million dollars, and a smaller sum to France.

As usual, China sought to evade her treaties with the Western powers; and the Chinese authorities exerted themselves, by prescribing a most unusual route for the foreign ambassadors and imposing various and vexatious delays upon them, to prevent them from reaching the Chinese capital. Thereupon the British ambassador ordered Admiral Hope, the commander of the British fleet, to force the passage of the Peiho river. That naval commander endeavored to obey the ambassador's orders, but was repulsed with heavy loss by the forts at the mouth of the river.

Thereupon the British and French ambassadors withdrew to Shanghai to await instructions from their respective governments. The United States minister, Mr. Ward, decided to accept the Chinese conditions; and, after enduring many inconveniences and indignities, he finally arrived at Peking; but, being refused an interview with the Chinese Emperor, except upon conditions degrading to himself and his nation, he returned in disgust to Shanghai, where he joined the British and French ambassadors.

England and France resented China's bad faith by renewing the war with that empire, and an Anglo-French expedition was sent against Peking. The allies took the Peiho forts, August 21, 1860, and occupied Tientsin, August 24, 1860. The Chinese officials strove to check the progress of the allies by negotiation; but the English and French were aware of the design of the treacherous mandarins, and the allied forces advanced upon the Chinese capital, before which they arrived October 6, 1860. The allies conducted the operations before Peking with vigor, and plundered and burned the Chinese Emperor's summer palace, a magnificent

edifice. One of the gates of the capital was surrendered to the allies, October 13, 1860; whereupon the Chinese Emperor found himself obliged to yield, and he renewed and ratified the treaties with England and France. The allied forces then retired, and China has ever since observed her treaties with the Western powers.

For some time the Christian missionaries in the Empire of Anam had suffered persecution and cruel treatment, and in 1858 France and Spain sent a joint expedition against that empire of Farther India. The French prosecuted the war in Anam for four years, 1858–1862, taking many of the Anamese towns, and finally compelled the Emperor of Anam to accept a treaty of peace by which he ceded portions of the coasts of his provinces of Tonquin and Cochin China to France.

SPAIN'S AFFAIRS.

As we have seen, a succession of popular generals—Espartero, Narvaez and O'Donnell—ruled Spain under Queen Isabella II., keeping that kingdom in a condition of revolution and civil war for twenty years. In 1853 General Narvaez was exiled; and in 1854 General Espartero organized a military insurrection in Madrid, and made himself Prime Minister. The queen-mother Maria Christina was impeached, whereupon she fled from Madrid. The elder Don Carlos died in 1855, transmitting his claims to the Spanish throne to his son, the Count de Montemolin.

An insurrection broke out at Valencia in 1856. Thereupon Espartero resigned, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Marshal O'Donnell, July, 1856. An insurrection in Madrid was quelled by Marshal O'Donnell, and the National Guard of Spain was disbanded, July, 1856. Marshal O'Donnell also quelled insurrections at Barcelona and Saragossa, July, 1856; but, after being made Dictator, he was forced to resign the office, and was succeeded as Prime Minister by General Narvaez, who had in the meantime returned from exile.

In October, 1859, Spain became involved in a war with the Empire of Morocco, and

Marshal O'Donnell commanded the Spanish army which invaded Morocco. The Emperor of Morocco proclaimed a "holy war," and sought to arouse the religious zeal of his subjects to the protection of their country against invasion and to the defense of Islam against the foes of the Koran. The Spaniards under General Prim defeated an army of forty thousand Moors, January 2, 1860. The Moors were completely defeated, and were obliged to accept the terms of peace dictated by Spain, March 26, 1860.

In 1860 unsuccessful efforts were made to overthrow Queen Isabella II., and to make the Count de Montemolin King of Spain. In 1860 the Emperor Napoleon III. proposed to recognize Spain as a first-class power; but England refused, and the project was abandoned.

In 1861 the annexation of San Domingo to Spain was ratified; and during the same year Spain joined England and France in sending an expedition to Mexico to obtain reparation for the losses of English, French and Spanish subjects in Mexico; but Spain and England withdrew their forces upon receiving satisfaction from the Mexican Republic in 1862; while the French remained, and sought to erect a monarchy in Mexico.

In 1863 Don Juan de Bourbon renounced his claims to the Spanish crown; and Marshal O'Donnell, who had in the meantime again become Prime Minister, again resigned that office. During the same year an insurrection broke out against Spanish authority in the newly-annexed island of San Domingo.

A war between Spain and Peru broke out in 1864, and Spanish fleets proceeded to the coast of Peru. During the same year General Prim was exiled for conspiracy against the government. General Narvaez again became Prime Minister of Spain, and advised the relinquishment of San Domingo; but Queen Isabella II. refused to follow his counsel in this matter.

In 1865 a treaty of peace was made with Peru, by which that South American republic was compelled to pay a heavy war indemnity to Spain. Queen Isabella II.

ordered the sale of the crown-lands, and gave three-fourths of them to the Spanish nation. During the year 1865 Spain relinquished San Domingo. During the same year Spain recognized the new Kingdom of Italy, and also became involved in a war with Chili.

In January, 1866, five of the South American republics—Chili, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador and Venezuela—formed an alliance against Spain. Spanish fleets bombarded Valparaiso, in Chili, and Callao, in Peru. Peace was not made until 1871, though hostilities had ceased for several years. During 1866 Spain formally recognized and formed a treaty with the five Central American republics—Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. During the same year General Prim led an insurrection against Queen Isabella II.; but the movement was foiled, and the insurgents fled into Portugal and laid down their arms.

AFFAIRS OF PORTUGAL.

Queen Maria II. of Portugal died in 1853, and was succeeded on the Portuguese throne by her son PEDRO V. As he was a minor when he became king, his father, Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, acted as regent until 1855, when the young king was declared of age. Ferdinand was sincerely attached to free institutions, and inspired his son with similar sentiments. Upon assuming the government, Pedro V. exerted himself to repair the evils which the revolutions and civil wars of the previous reigns had brought upon his kingdom, and sought to promote the prosperity of his subjects. In 1861 Lisbon became a prey to the ravages of yellow fever. King Pedro V. sought to relieve the sufferers, thus exposing himself to the pestilence, to which he fell a victim, dying November 11, 1861.

Pedro V. was succeeded as King of Portugal by his brother, LUIZ I. In 1868 slavery was abolished in the Portuguese colonies. Industrial expositions were held at Oporto in 1866 and 1872. In 1873 the floating debt of Portugal was consolidated. Luiz I. died October 19, 1889, and was succeeded on the throne by his son CHARLES.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In 1851 the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria revoked the constitution which he had granted to his Empire in 1849, and in 1852 he abolished trial by jury in his dominions. In 1856 the Emperor granted amnesty to the Hungarian political offenders of 1848-'49. In 1860 he removed the political disabilities of the Jews in his Empire, but he restrained the liberty of the press still further. During the same year fresh troubles began in Hungary. Legislative powers were granted to the *Reichsrath*, or Austrian Parliament, which was also entrusted with the control of the public finances.

In 1861 there was great dissatisfaction throughout the Austrian Empire in consequence of the Emperor Francis Joseph's reactionary policy. The Emperor published a new constitution for his dominions. Civil and political rights were granted to the Protestants throughout the Empire, except in Hungary and Venetia. The Reichsrath assembled April 29, 1861; but no deputies were present from Hungary, Croatia, Transylvania, Venetia, or Istria. The Hungarians demanded the restoration of the constitution of 1848, as the new liberal constitution did not satisfy them. In July, 1861, the military levied taxes in Hungary. The Emperor refused entire independence to Hungary, July 21, 1861. The Hungarian Diet protested against the Emperor's action, August 20, 1861, and was dissolved by the Emperor the next day, August 21, 1861. The magistrates at Pesth resigned; and in December, 1861, military government was established in Hungary.

In 1862 the Emperor Francis Joseph granted amnesty to the Hungarians, and prosecutions ceased on November 19th of that year. The Ministry of Marine was created, and the principle of Ministerial responsibility was adopted in the government of the Austrian Empire. The Austrian army was reduced; and a personal liberty bill, similar to the English Habeas Corpus Law, was passed by the Reichsrath. In 1864 Transylvania accepted the new impe-

rial constitution and sent deputies to the Reichsrath. In 1864 Galicia and Cracow were declared in a state of siege, in consequence of the troubles in Russian Poland.

PRUSSIA AND GERMANY.

The decade following the revolutionary storms of 1848-'49 was one of great material development in Germany, and that country enjoyed great material prosperity. Commerce and manufactures increased rapidly, and in the North German states great attention was paid to popular education.

In 1856 and 1857 there was a quarrel between Prussia and Switzerland about Neuchâtel, but Prussia finally relinquished her claims for a pecuniary consideration. In 1857 King Frederick William IV. of Prussia lost his reason; and his brother, Frederick William Lewis, was made regent. In 1858 Prince Frederick William, the regent's son, married the Princess Royal of England.

The unification of Italy, in 1859, 1860 and 1861, exercised a powerful influence upon Germany in reviving the hopes of those who longed for the unity of the Fatherland and the exclusion of Austria from Germany.

On the death of Frederick William IV. of Prussia, January 2, 1861, his brother, the Prince Regent, became King of Prussia with the title of WILLIAM I. The new king and queen were crowned at Königsberg, October 18, 1861. William I. declared that he would "reign by the grace of God." The new king began his reign with the determination to reorganize the Prussian army. In 1862 a responsible Ministry was established in Prussia, but the king entered upon a reactionary policy. The government was defeated in the elections for the Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies resolutely opposed the course of the government relative to the reorganization of the Prussian army, as it involved a heavy expenditure of money; but King William I. persisted in his course, and appointed Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen as his Prime Minister, October 8, 1862, also making him Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Prussian king could not have made a better choice for Premier; as Bismarck was a statesman of the first order, and was fully in sympathy with the king's desire to make Prussia the leading state of Germany. He went farther than King William I., and was determined to drive Austria from Germany. He was bold and fearless in everything that he undertook, firm and despotic in the manner of executing his plans, and was utterly indifferent to public sentiment. He was thenceforth for the rest of his life the master-spirit of the Prussian policy; and with his aid the Prussian king succeeded in carrying out his scheme of army reform, in spite of the opposition of the Chambers, and in direct violation of the Prussian constitution. Bismarck declared openly in the Prussian Diet that the traditional contest between Prussia and Austria for supremacy in Germany could only be settled by "*blut und eisen*," "blood and iron."

Bismarck informed the Chamber of Deputies that the budget was deferred until 1863. The Chamber of Deputies protested against this as unconstitutional, September 30, 1862. The Chamber of Peers passed the budget without the amendments of the Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies declared the action of the Chamber of Peers unconstitutional, October 11, 1862. King William I. prorogued the Chambers, and announced that "the budget for the year 1862, as decreed by the Chamber of Deputies, having been rejected by the Chamber of Peers on the ground of insufficiency, the government of His Majesty is under the necessity of controlling public affairs outside the constitution," October 13, 1862.

The quarrel of King William I. and Bismarck with the Chamber of Deputies continued in 1863. The king prorogued the Chambers and resolved to govern without a Diet, May 27, 1863; and severe restrictions were imposed upon the press, June 1, 1863. The Crown Prince Frederick William disavowed participation in the recent action of the Ministry, June 5, 1863.

Austria had watched the course of Prussia with ill-concealed anxiety; and in August,





THE "FERDINAND MAX" RAMMING THE "RE D'ITALIA," BATTLE OF LISSA.

1863, to the astonishment of Germany, she summoned a congress of the German princes to meet at Frankfort-on-the-Main to make certain reforms in the constitution of the German Confederation. Prussia declined to participate in the proposed congress, and the Austrian project fell through.

THE NEW PRINCIPALITY OF ROUMANIA.

In 1861 Sultan Abdul Medjid died, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother ABDUL AZIZ. In December, 1861, the tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia were erected into the almost-independent principality of *Roumania*, with a prince elected by the people and confirmed by the Sultan. Thus Roumania bore the same relation to the Ottoman Porte as Servia, being virtually independent, and acknowledging but a nominal allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey. In 1866 Charles of Hohenzollern, a remote relative of the Prussian royal family, was elected Prince of Roumania by the Roumanian Chambers.

FRENCH INVASION OF MEXICO.

In December, 1861, a combined French, Spanish and British expedition invaded Mexico, to secure payment of the claims of French, Spanish and English subjects. The English and Spaniards withdrew from Mexican soil in 1862, upon receiving satisfaction from the Mexican government, and upon being apprised of the aim of the Emperor Napoleon III. to overthrow the Mexican Republic and establish a monarchy on Mexican soil. The French troops remained to carry out the French Emperor's ambitious scheme. The French army under General Forey took Pueblo by siege, May 15, 1863, and occupied the city of Mexico, June 13, 1863.

A Mexican Assembly of Notables, under French influence, declared Mexico a hereditary Empire, and proclaimed the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, *Emperor of Mexico*. Maximilian and his wife, Carlotta, entered the Mexican capital in June, 1864. The war between the French and the Mexican

imperialists on one side, and the Mexican republicans under President Benito Juarez on the other, continued with various success for several years. In December, 1866, Napoleon III. withdrew the French expeditionary forces from Mexico, at the urgent demand of the United States; and Maximilian's Empire rapidly tottered to its fall.

Maximilian refused to abdicate, as advised by the French Emperor. In 1867 Maximilian was hemmed in at Queretaro, where, through the treachery of the imperialist General Lopez, he was captured and finally shot by the republicans, June 19, 1867; and his empress, Carlotta, became hopelessly insane. Thus the Mexican Republic triumphed, and the French Emperor's design of founding a Latin empire in America failed ignominiously. This Franco-Mexican war will be more fully described in the history of Mexico.

GREEK REVOLUTION OF 1862.

For a long time the Greek people had suffered under the misrule of King Otho. Oppression followed oppression. The greater part of the uncultivated lands became the property of the crown. The peasants were required to pay a heavy land-tax, and manufactures were discouraged. The public money was squandered by the extravagant court, and the corrupt Ministry succeeded by bribes in having the legislative Chambers filled with the supporters of the crown.

The growing discontent of the Greek people compelled King Otho to call on Canaris to form a new Ministry; but when Canaris presented to the king a memorial asking for the dissolution of the fraudulently-elected Chambers, the formation of a National Guard, and the abolition of the censorship of the press, he was dismissed, and the corrupt Ministry remained in power.

Soon afterward King Otho caused more than one thousand of the popular party to be imprisoned on a charge of plotting against the government. The result of this outrageous act was the breaking out of a revolt at Nauplia, on the 12th of February, 1862. The city of Nauplia was besieged by the

government troops, and the insurgents were forced to surrender on the 20th of April, 1862. An amnesty was granted to all but nineteen of the insurgents; but this amnesty was afterward violated, and many of the insurgents were thrown into prison. Another insurrection against the king had in the meantime broken out in the island of Syra. The Syrans were defeated in the naval battle of Thermia, but still they refused to submit. During the summer the spirit of opposition to the government manifested itself throughout Greece, while the tyranny of the king continually increased. Convicts were liberated from the prisons to plunder and keep down the people, and the press was prohibited from publishing the sentiments of the people. The opposition to King Otho became so great that he was obliged to abdicate his throne, on the 30th of October, 1862, and to leave Greece a few days afterward. A provisional government under Demetrius Bulgaris was immediately installed; and in the following year, 1863, Prince George of Denmark was raised to the throne of Greece, with the title of *GEORGE I., King of the Hellenes*. In 1863 Great Britain abandoned her fifty years' protectorate of the Ionian Isles, and those islands were annexed to the Kingdom of Greece.

POLISH INSURRECTION OF 1862-'64.

The Poles who had assembled at Warsaw on the 15th of October, 1861, to celebrate the memory of Kosciuszko were prevented from doing so by the Russian authorities, who, the day before, had declared the city in a state of siege, and stationed large bodies of troops in the streets. The people nevertheless assembled in the churches peaceably; and, when the churches were filled, the soldiers ordered them to disperse. As the Poles refused to obey, the Russian soldiers, by order of their commander, carried more than two thousand of them to the Citadel. These tyrannical proceedings were followed by the arrest, imprisonment, banishment, and condemnation to death, of the most prominent Poles.

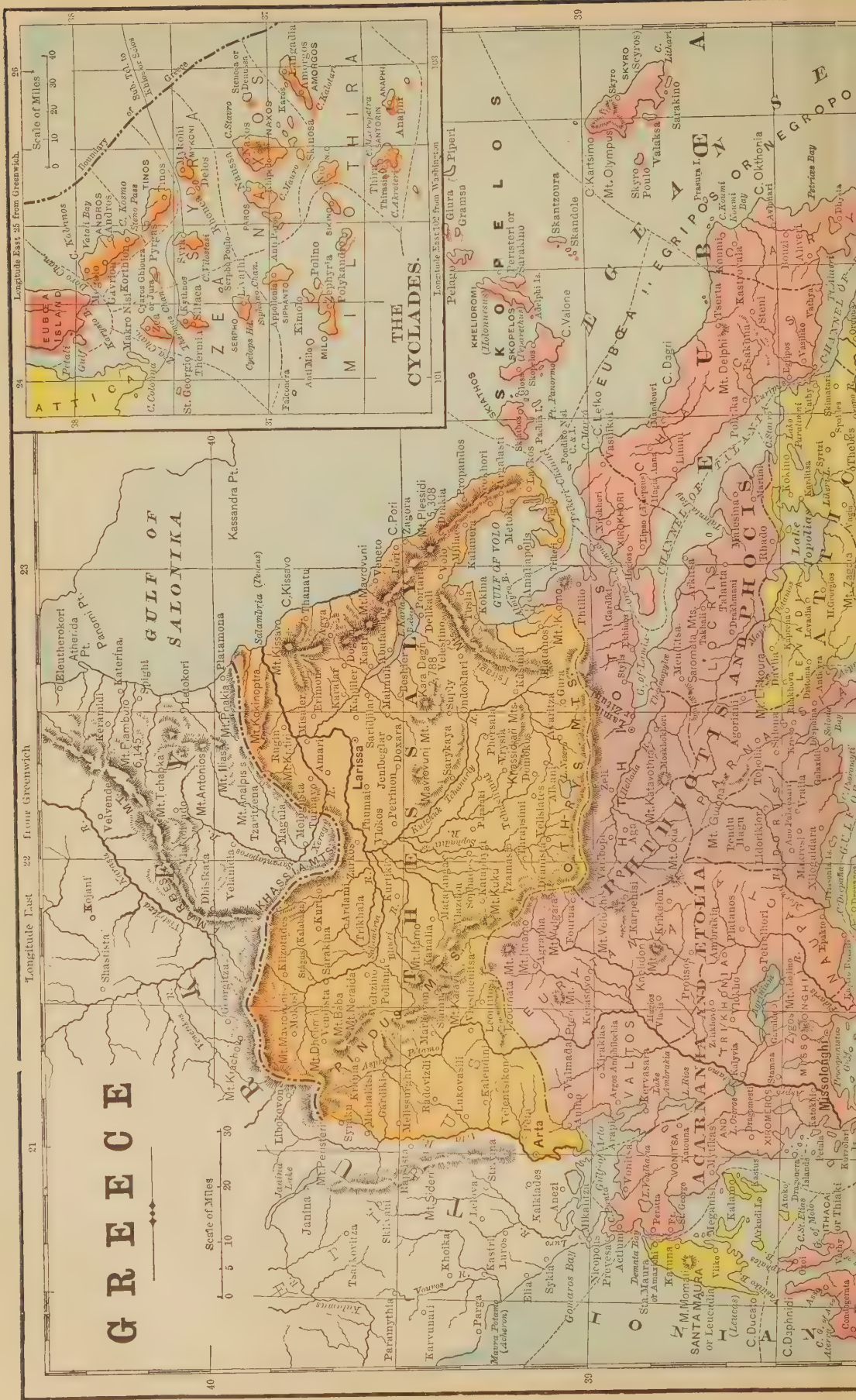
In the summer of 1862 attempts were

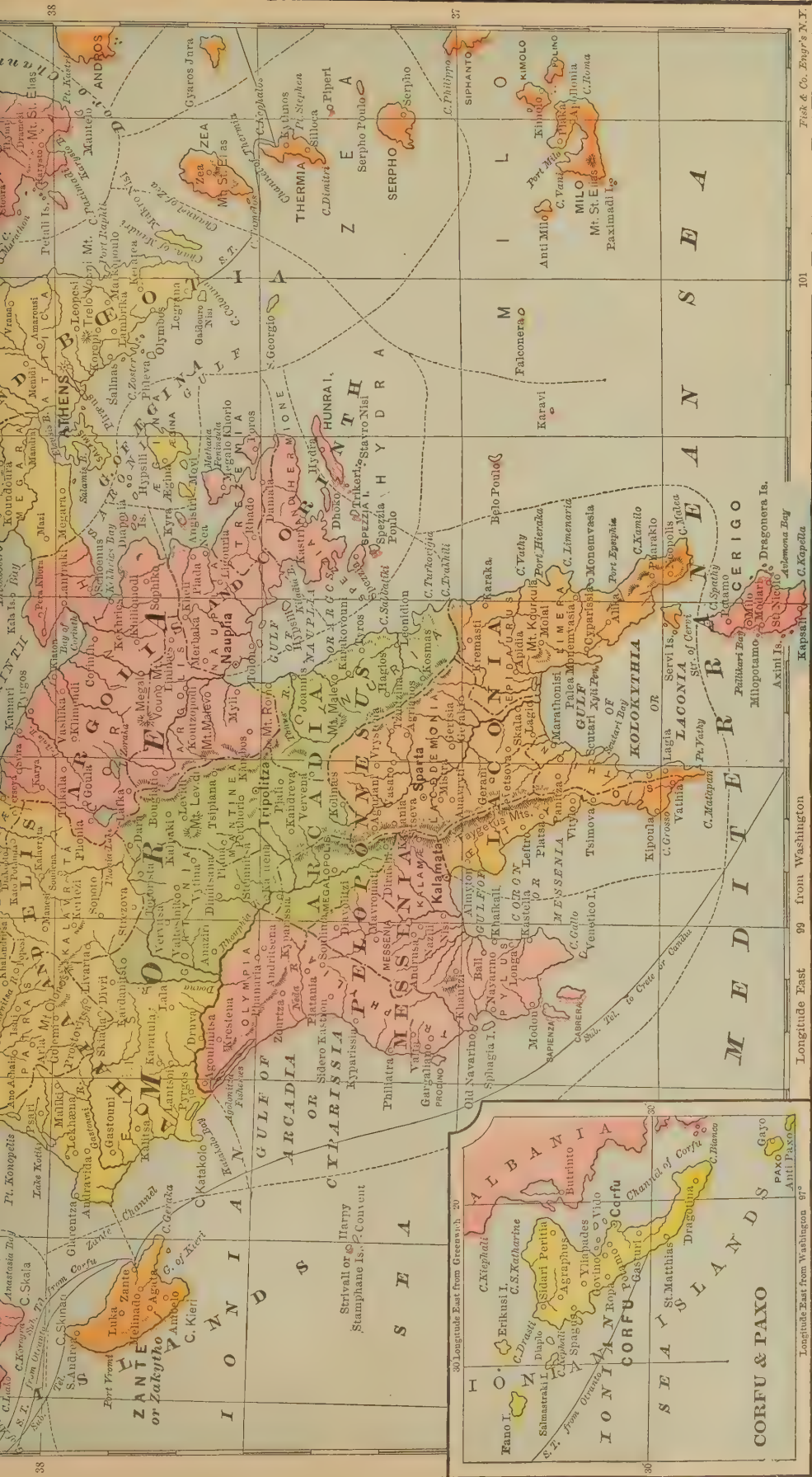
made by the Poles in Warsaw to assassinate the Archduke Constantine, Lieutenant of Poland, and brother of the Czar Alexander II. The Archduke and Count Wialopolski were severely wounded; but the assassins were arrested, condemned and executed.

In November, 1862, the Russian government determined to put the citizens of the towns in Poland who had manifested any opposition to its authority into the Russian army as common soldiers, and to send them to perform military service in Siberia. This harsh measure roused the Poles to a spirit of resistance, and a general insurrection against Russian authority commenced throughout Poland. Small bands of insurgent Poles engaged in numerous conflicts with the Russian troops without decisive results. The revolt never arose above the character of a guerrilla war. This Polish rebellion at one time threatened complications dangerous to the general peace of Europe. England, France, Austria and Sweden sympathized with the Poles, and asked of the Russian Emperor the amelioration of their condition. The insurrection continued for upwards of a year, and it was with great difficulty that the Russian government was enabled to suppress the rebellion in the summer of 1864. The Czar adopted harsh measures against the unfortunate Poles, many of whom were imprisoned, banished or executed. The Polish language was forbidden in the schools of Poland, and Russian was substituted instead; and in 1868 Poland ceased to exist, and was entirely absorbed in the Russian Empire.

RUSSIAN SERF-EMANCIPATION.

The Czar Alexander II. of Russia pursued a different policy from that of his father. He began his reign with the determination to complete the work of civilization begun by Peter the Great, and devoted his efforts wholly to the reform of the old Russian system. In these efforts he was opposed by the old Russian or conservative party; but he persevered, and during his reign Russia began a new period in her national career. He granted trial by jury in 1862, and con-





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ceded additional privileges to the Jews in the Russian Empire.

But the greatest of the Czar's reforms, and the one which has immortalized his name, was the emancipation of the Russian serfs. Of the thirty-eight millions of serfs in the Russian Empire at that time, sixteen millions were the property of the Russian crown. They were bought and sold with the lands on which they lived, and their

which he hoped would eventually improve their character, and give to Russia an intelligent and industrious peasantry in the place of the former degraded slaves.

EUROPEAN WAR IN JAPAN.

During the civil war in Japan between the Shogun and the Mikado the Mikado's forces fired upon the ships of England, France, Holland and the United States.

These powers sent a combined squadron to Shimonoseki in 1864, and that Japanese town was taken after a severe bombardment. The allies compelled Japan to pay an indemnity of three million dollars. This result made the Japanese aware of the power of the Western nations, and they have ever since been more cautious in their conduct toward the foreigners.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN WAR OF 1864.

A Congress of European Powers, assembled at London in 1852, settled the succession to the throne of Denmark and to the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein upon Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. On the death of King Frederick VII. of Denmark, in November, 1863, Prince Christian succeeded to the throne of Denmark as CHRISTIAN IX., and to the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; but the succession to the Duchies was claimed by Duke Frederick of Augustenburg, whose rights had been disregarded by the London Congress of European Powers. The people of Schleswig and Holstein, mostly Germans, for the most part sided with the Duke of Augustenburg, who also had the sympathies of the whole German nation.

In January, 1864, the Diet of the Germanic Confederation sent an army into Schleswig and Holstein, to support the claims of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg, and to prevent the incorporation of those German Duchies with the Kingdom of Denmark; while Austria and Prussia, acting independ-



THE EMPEROR ALEXANDER II. OF RUSSIA.

condition was in all respects very degraded. The serfs on the imperial domains were emancipated in 1858.

On February 1, 1861, the Czar Alexander II. of Russia issued an imperial ukase promising the emancipation of the remaining Russian serfs two years from that date; and accordingly the serfs were declared free on February 1, 1863. By this action of the Czar twenty-three millions of Russians were raised from a most degrading condition to the position of free Russian subjects, and measures were taken for their improvement.

The Emperor Alexander II. steadfastly encouraged the emancipated serfs to acquire property, and aided them to do so. He sought to establish schools among them

ently of the Federal Diet, also sent armies into the Duchies ; and a war ensued between Denmark and the German powers.

The allied Austro-Prussian army under General Wrangel, consisting of Austrians under General Gablenz and Prussians under Prince Frederick Charles, the nephew of King William I. of Prussia, crossed the Eider, February 1, 1864, and seized Altona. The Danes were forced back through Holstein and Schleswig into Jutland, amid continual skirmishing, in February, March and April, 1864. Finally the strongly fortified Danish line of defense, the Dannewirke, was carried by storm, whereupon the allies overran the whole peninsula of Jutland, and the strong fortress of Düppel was taken by assault and bombardment, April 18, 1864, but the Danish fleet defeated the allied fleet off Heligoland, May 9, 1864.

Through the efforts of England a conference of the Five Great Powers convened in London and induced the belligerent powers to consent to an armistice, May 9, 1864 ; but hostilities were renewed June 26, 1864. The allies drove the Danes from the island of Alsens, opposite Düppel, June 29, 1864. A second armistice was concluded July 18, 1864 ; and by a preliminary treaty of peace, August 1, 1864, and a definitive treaty of peace, October 30, 1864, both concluded at Vienna, King Christian IX. of Denmark relinquished Schleswig-Holstein to Austria and Prussia.

AFFAIRS OF AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

In 1865 Austria was disturbed by financial troubles. The Emperor Francis Joseph resolved upon political reforms. Concessions were to be made to Hungary, and a more liberal manner of administering the imperial government was introduced. The Emperor published a rescript suppressing the constitution for the purpose of granting independence to Hungary. During that year the Emperor visited Hungary. There was discontent in the other parts of the Empire.

In 1865 King William I. of Prussia and Prime Minister Bismarck were involved in another quarrel with the Chamber of Deputies of that kingdom over the army

budget. The Chamber of Deputies rejected the budget ; whereupon the king prorogued the Prussian Diet, and declared that he would rule without it. The king arbitrarily seized and disposed of the public revenue.

THE SEVEN WEEKS' WAR, 1866.

A dispute between Austria and Prussia concerning the sovereignty of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which those two great powers had wrested from Denmark in 1864, led to a short but fierce and decisive war in the summer of 1866. Austria seemed disposed to support the claims of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg to the sovereignty of the Duchies ; but, in October, 1865, Prussia declared that, according to the late treaty with Denmark, the sovereignty of the two Duchies had been yielded to Austria and Prussia jointly. Prussia considered the favor of Austria for Duke Frederick of Augustenburg as indicating antagonism to the joint sovereignty of Austria and Prussia over the Duchies.

War between Austria and Prussia was averted in 1865 by the Convention of Gastein, negotiated by Count von Bismarck and the Austrian envoy, Count Blome, by which Prussia purchased the Austrian Emperor's rights in the Duchy of Lauenburg for two and a half million Danish dollars, while it was agreed to place Schleswig under Prussian control and Holstein under Austrian rule until the question of inheritance could be settled. Prussia was to hold the port of Kiel, which was to be free to the Austrian fleet. Prussia was not yet prepared for war, and had merely consented to this settlement to gain time. This convention gave great offense to the German Federal Diet.

The quarrel soon reopened. General von Manteuffel, the Prussian governor of Schleswig, forbade all agitation in that Duchy in favor of the Duke of Augustenburg ; while Austria sought to frustrate the Prussian scheme for securing the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, and permitted the partisans of the Duke of Augustenburg in Holstein to do as they saw fit.

On January 26, 1866, Prussia formally protested against the Austrian policy in Holstein; and Austria replied that she would firmly adhere to her policy. This correspondence was followed by measures showing that the inevitable struggle between Austria and Prussia for supremacy in Germany was at hand, and that the irrepressible conflict would soon have to be settled by "blood and iron." The quarrel over the disposition of the Duchies of Schleswig-

states endeavored to have the difficulty between the two great powers settled by the process of Austringal Judgment, as provided for in the eleventh article of the Federal Pact; but Prussia insisted on a reorganization of the Germanic Confederation. At length both Austria and Prussia agreed to disarm; but in the meantime Prussia had entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Italy, and both Austria and Prussia continued their armaments.



EPISODE OF THE SEVEN WEEKS' WAR OF 1866.

Holstein was merely a pretext for war, the true cause of the struggle being the traditional Austro-Prussian contest which had been going on since the days of Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa.

In the early part of 1866 Austria placed her army on a war-footing; and Prussia, suspecting the designs of Austria, began to arm in her defense. Austria pretended that her military preparations were with the view of protecting the Jews in Bohemia from persecution. The smaller German

The discussions of Prussia's demand for a reorganization of the Germanic Diet rendered an amicable adjustment of the dispute still more difficult, and at length Prussia declared that if her demands were not complied with by the Diet she would seek redress through some other source. The Austrian governor of Holstein had received orders to summon the Estates of the Duchy to consider their political relations. Prussia considered this a violation of the stipulations of the treaty of 1864; and Count von

Bismarck, the Prussian Prime Minister, dispatched a military force into Holstein; whereupon the Austrians withdrew from that Duchy.

A motion for the mobilization of the German Federal army was, through the influence of Austria, adopted by the Federal Diet; whereupon Prussia declared the Diet dissolved on account of the violation of the Germanic Constitution, withdrew from the Germanic Confederation, and called upon the German states to unite with her under a new constitution. On the 18th of June, 1866, Italy and Prussia formally and conjointly declared war against Austria, and immediately set their armies in motion.

Prussian troops had already occupied Hesse-Cassel, Hanover and Saxony, because those states refused to unite with Prussia in a new confederation. The King of Saxony fled into Bohemia, destroying the bridges and tearing up the railroads behind him. Prussia vainly attempted a reconciliation with Hanover. Although successful in the battle of Langensalza with the Prussians, June 27, 1866, the Hanoverian army, not receiving the expected assistance of the Bavarians, was obliged to surrender to the Prussians, whose numbers were increasing.

In Western Germany the Prussians under General von Falkenstein and General Manteuffel were victorious over the Federal German armies under Prince Charles of Bavaria and Prince Alexander of Hesse. After Manteuffel's victory at Aschaffenburg, Von Falkenstein occupied Frankfort, and exacted enormous contributions from that free city.

The Italian armies were at this time contending against the Austrians in Northern Italy. On the 24th of June, 1866, was fought the battle of Custozza, in which the Italians were defeated and compelled to retreat. In July the Italian army invaded Venetia, and forced the Austrians to fall back. General Garibaldi, with twelve thousand Italians, was in the passes of the Tyrol, to the left of the main Italian army. The Italian left wing compelled the Austrians to retreat beyond Trent, in the Tyrol. The Italian right pursued the Austrians in their

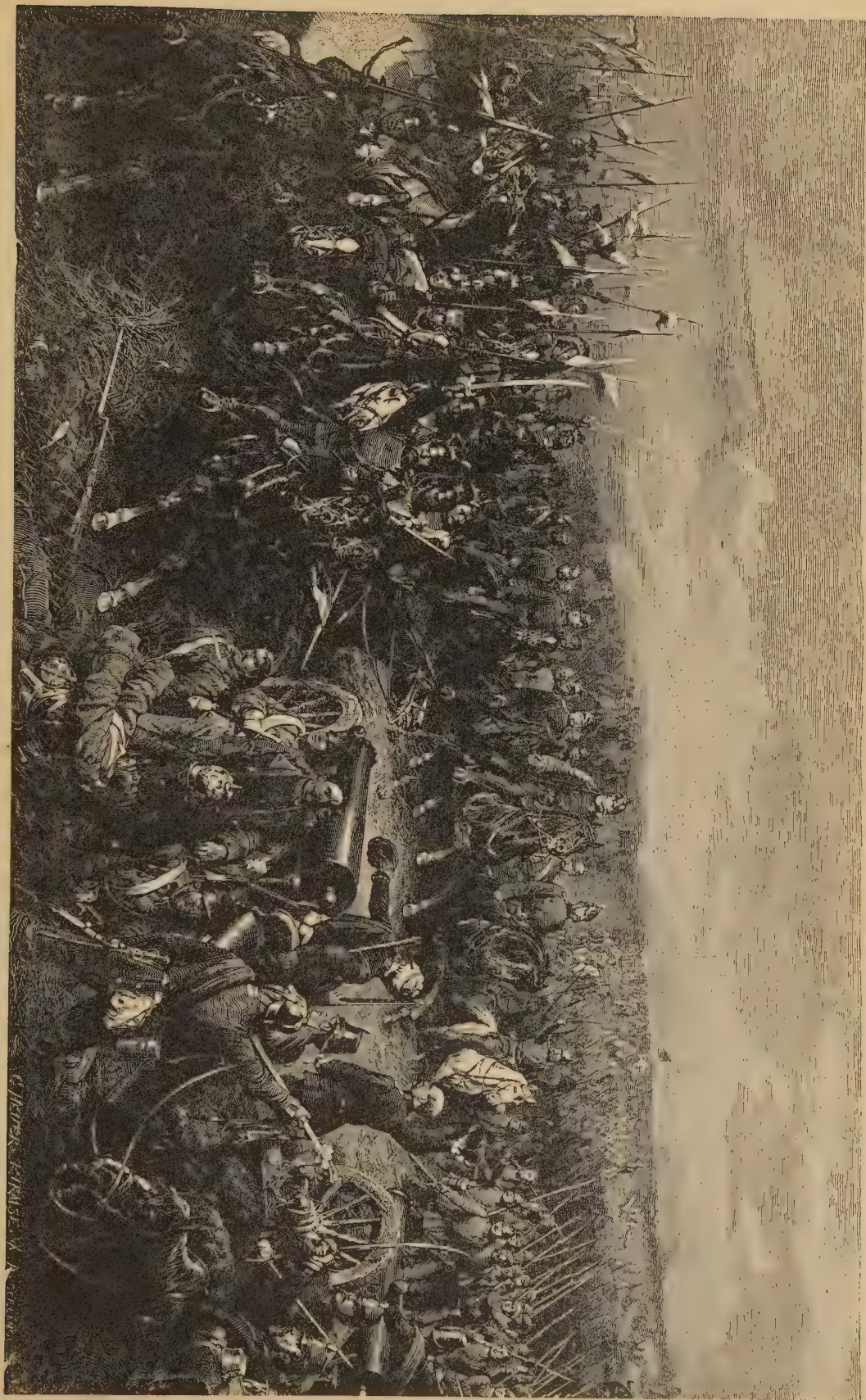
retreat through Venetia. While these movements were taking place on land, the Italian navy was defeated off the island of Lissa by the Austrian fleet under Admiral Tegethoff, July 20, 1866.

In the meantime the Prussians were conducting a brilliant campaign against the Austrians in Bohemia. Three large Prussian armies, numbering together two hundred and fifty-six thousand men, had been assembled in June, 1866, for the invasion of the Austrian province of Bohemia. The 1st Prussian army under Prince Frederick Charles, the nephew of King William of Prussia, advanced into Bohemia from Saxony. The 3d Prussian army, under General von Bittenfeld, joined the 1st Prussian army in Bohemia before the close of June; and the Austrians were defeated near Gitschin and forced to fall back. The 2d Prussian army, under the Crown-Prince Frederick William of Prussia, passed the frontiers of Silesia and advanced into Bohemia; General Steinmetz defeating the Austrians at Nachod and Skalitz, June 27, 1866.

After brilliant maneuvering, and a series of conflicts in which the Prussians captured fifteen thousand prisoners and twenty-four pieces of artillery, the 1st and 3d Prussian armies became engaged with two hundred thousand Austrians under Field-Marshal Benedek, at nine o'clock in the morning of the 3d of July, 1866, at the little village of Sadowa, near Königgratz. The Prussians had held their ground firmly against the superior force of the Austrians, when the arrival of the Crown-Prince with the 2d Prussian army, at one o'clock in the afternoon, decided the battle against the Austrians, who, after fighting bravely, were defeated with the loss of forty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners, and one hundred and seventy-four pieces of cannon. The victorious Prussians lost about ten thousand men. The Prussian needle-gun did its work.

After the battle of Sadowa the shattered Austrian forces retreated to Olmütz, in Moravia, pursued by the Prussians, who gained another victory on the 22d of July, 1866.

BATTLE OF SADOWA, JULY 3, 1866.



The Austrian government, seriously alarmed at the rapid advance of the triumphant Prussians, was now anxious for peace; and, through the mediation of France, an armistice was concluded at Nicholsburg, July 26. On the 23d of August, 1866, a treaty of peace was signed at Prague by the plenipotentiaries of Austria and Prussia. By this treaty Austria ceded Venetia to Italy, consented to the formation of a new German Confederation from which she was to be excluded, surrendered the entire sovereignty of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia, and paid a war indemnity of twenty million thalers to Prussia.

Prussia concluded treaties of peace on advantageous terms for herself with Bavaria, Würtemberg and Baden in August, 1866, with Hesse-Darmstadt in September, 1866, and with Saxony in October, 1866. Bavaria was obliged to cede a small portion of her territory to Prussia, and Hesse-Darmstadt was forced to relinquish the Landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg and the right to garrison the fortress of Mayence. Prussia entered into a secret alliance with all these German states except Bavaria, by which they agreed to place their troops under the supreme command of the King of Prussia in time of war. In the meantime Prussia had annexed Schleswig, Holstein, Hanover, Nassau, Hesse-Cassel and the free city of Frankfort, by right of conquest. An armistice had been proclaimed between Austria and Italy; and on the 3d of October, 1866, a treaty of peace between those two powers was signed at Vienna, Austria surrendering Venetia to Italy.

The wonderful successes of Prussia in this short and decisive war caused the constitutional party of Prussia to forget and forgive the violations of the Prussian constitution by King William I. and Prime Minister Bismarck, as the result of the struggle so amply vindicated their foresight. On his return to Berlin, on August 4, 1866, the King of Prussia met with an enthusiastic reception; and a cordial and permanent reconciliation between the king and the Chambers followed.

THE NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

As a result of the Seven Weeks' War, the old Germanic Confederation, formed by the Congress of Vienna in 1815, was dissolved, and a *North German Confederation* under the leadership of Prussia was established; while Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt became independent sovereign states. The states of this league placed their armies wholly under the control of Prussia.

The North German Diet, or Parliament, assembled at Berlin, February 24, 1867, and set about the task of framing a constitution for the Confederation; and this constitution was in full operation by July 1, 1867. It vested the legislative power of the Confederation in a Diet elected by the people of the North German states, and a *Federal Council* composed of representatives of the same states. The executive power of the Confederation was vested in the King of Prussia as President.

This constitution was not considered final, as the South German states were still independent; and a large party in North Germany, called the National Liberal party, desired the union of those states with the new Confederation. Count von Bismarck, who openly favored such union, was ardently supported by that party in both the Prussian and North German Diets. A step in that direction was made in May, 1868, when a customs-parliament elected by all the German states convened at Berlin to adjust the commercial relations of those states. Baden and Hesse-Homburg signed a convention by which their military system was arranged upon a basis similar to that of the North German Confederation. Baden very much desired to become a member of the North German Confederation, but was hindered by the reluctance of the other South German states to take such a step. There were two parties in South Germany hostile to Prussia—the Ultramontanes, or extreme Catholics, because of her Protestantism; and the democrats, because of her absolutist tendencies. These parties opposed the union of South and North Germany

under Prussia's leadership so bitterly that even the most sanguine friends of such a union began to despair of its consummation; but in a few years the attack of a powerful neighbor brought about the realization of this end, as we shall presently see.

REORGANIZATION OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

After the close of the Seven Weeks' War, the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria ceased to take any part in the affairs of Germany, and devoted himself to the improvement of his hereditary Austrian states. Peace found the Austrian Empire in a most deplorable condition. Its armies had been almost ruined by the reverses which they had sustained in the field, and the finances of the Empire were in the same wretched condition. The different nationalities of the ill-compacted Empire, weary of their long deprivation of civil and religious liberty, were on the verge of rebellion; and the monarchy of the Hapsburgs was about to fall to pieces.

In this emergency the Emperor Francis Joseph summoned to his aid the able and enlightened statesman, the Baron von Beust, the former Prime Minister of Saxony, whom he created President of the Imperial Council. Baron von Beust, as Prime Minister of the Austrian Empire, advised a prompt reconstruction of the imperial system; and the Emperor Francis Joseph acted upon his advice.

Austria, thus expelled from Germany, entered upon an era of liberal reform, under the Ministry of the Saxon, Count von Beust. Hungary received a separate Diet and a separate Ministry under Count Andrassy, and was united with Austria by a joint assembly, composed of sixty members from each Diet, called *The Delegations*, which meets alternately at Vienna and Pesth. Popular representative government was established in all the Austrian states; civil, political and religious equality was established; marriage and education were made independent of priestly control; and in a single session of the Austrian Reichsrath, or Parliament, 1867-'68, despotisms of a thousand

years were swept away, and Austria-Hungary, so long the bulwark of European despotism, became as liberal a constitutional monarchy as Great Britain. The Concordat with the Pope was annulled in 1870, and perfect religious toleration was established. The Emperor Francis Joseph was crowned *King of Hungary*, at Pesth, in 1867; and in 1868 the Empire received the title of the *Austro-Hungarian Monarchy*.

The establishment of constitutional government in Austria was followed by the happiest results, but was attained and secured only by the most determined contest with the old nobility of the Empire and with the Roman Catholic clergy. Fortunately for the Empire, the Emperor Francis Joseph has firmly adhered to his reforms, and despotism has been rooted out of its chosen home, so that Austria is no longer the China of Europe.

CRETAN REVOLT.

In 1866 a revolt broke out in the island of Candia, or Crete, against the Turks. The insurrection lasted several years, and the Cretans offered a valiant resistance to the Ottoman forces. The revolt enlisted the sympathies of Greece, whose people desired the annexation of the island to their kingdom. Early in 1869 this struggle threatened a rupture between Greece and Turkey, but war between those two states was prevented by the intervention of the Great Powers.

REFORMS IN ENGLAND.

The election of Nathan Lionel Rothschild to the British House of Commons precipitated a long and stubborn contest in Parliament. Rothschild, being a Jew, was disqualified from holding a seat in that body; but Parliament finally passed an act for the admission of Jews to seats in that body, whereupon Rothschild was permitted to take his seat, A. D. 1858.

Under Lord Palmerston's six years' Ministry, from 1859 to 1865, England enjoyed great material prosperity, and was increasing her wealth yearly. Lord Palmerston refrained from interrupting this happy

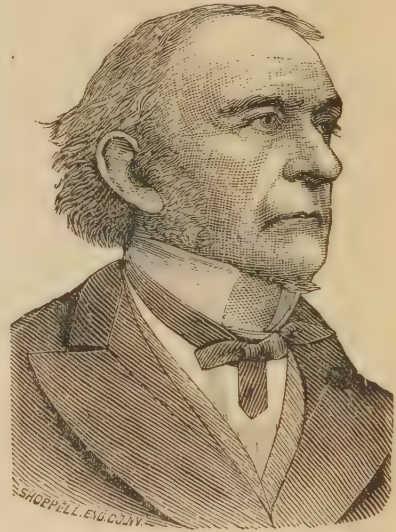
which was pushed forward with vigor and ability. Delegates appointed by the legislative assemblies of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick met in London, December 4, 1866, to arrange the terms of the confederation. The task was accomplished. A bill creating the provincial union, styled the *Dominion of Canada*, was introduced into the British Parliament, February 7, 1867; and, after passing both Houses, this bill became a law upon receiving the royal assent, March 29, 1867. On May 22, 1867, Queen Victoria issued a proclamation appointing July 1, 1867, as the day from which the Dominion of Canada was to date its existence. By this measure the new confederation of British provinces received the right of self-government. The crown appoints the Governor-General of Canada, but the Canadian people or their chosen delegates fill all the other offices in the Dominion. Thus Canada, while constituting an important part of the British Empire and owing allegiance to the British sovereign, is practically independent of Great Britain. Besides the Dominion government at Ottawa, the Dominion capital, each province has its local government consisting of a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislature, and is independent in the management of its local concerns. In 1870 the new province of Manitoba and the North-west Territories were purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company and were annexed to the Dominion. In 1871 British Columbia joined the Dominion, and Prince Edward's Island did the same in 1873. The large island of Newfoundland is the only British North American province that has not yet entered the Canadian Dominion.

For several years, 1865-1867—during the Liberal Ministry of Lord John Russell and the Conservative Ministry of Lord Derby—an Irish organization, known as the *Fenian Brotherhood*, revived the agitation for Irish independence; and England was obliged to maintain a military and police force of thirty thousand men in Ireland to suppress Fenian outbreaks. The Fenians committed many outrages, resorting to murder and to the use

of nitro-glycerine to blow up buildings; and the British Parliament passed a new coercion bill to suppress outrages in Ireland.

The chief event connected with the foreign policy of England during Lord Derby's Administration was the advance of an expedition under General Robert Napier into Abyssinia, late in 1867, to compel the Abyssinian King Theodore to release the British subjects whom he held in captivity because Queen Victoria would not marry him. King Theodore was defeated and killed at Magdala in April, 1868.

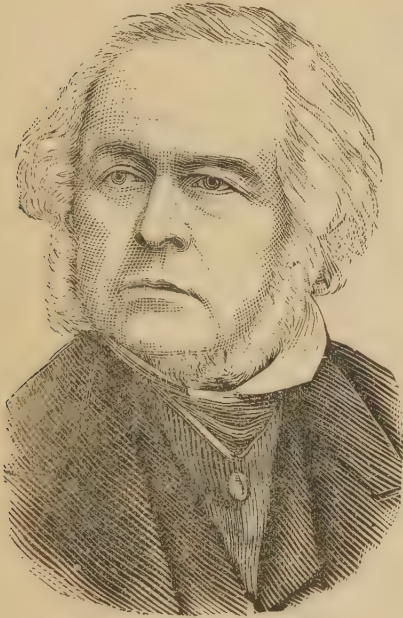
In May, 1868, Lord Derby was succeeded as Prime Minister by Mr. Disraeli, who dissolved Parliament in August, 1868, and ordered new elections to test public sentiment on the new question of the disestablishment of the Church of England in Ireland, which was now agitated by the Liberal



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

party headed by the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone and the Quaker statesman John Bright. The result of the enfranchisement of the working classes was seen in the Parliamentary elections in November, 1868, which resulted in overwhelming majorities for the candidates of the Liberal party, the aggregate popular majority for that party being about three hundred thousand, while the Liberals had a majority of over a hundred members in the new House of Commons.

Mr. Disraeli and his colleagues resigned early in December, 1868, and a Liberal Ministry headed by Mr. Gladstone came into power. Mr. Gladstone's Ministry comprised every section and element of the Liberal party, and included such able statesmen as John Bright, Robert Lowe, William E.



JOHN BRIGHT.

Forster and Sir William Vernon Harcourt among its members. The strength and vigor of the new Administration was shown by a succession of great measures of reform.

Mr. Gladstone first applied himself to allaying the chronic discontent in Ireland, and the great measure of his Administration was the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland. A disestablishment bill, which encountered the most strenuous opposition on the part of the aristocratic Tories in the House of Lords, was finally passed in August, 1869, when the House of Lords yielded to public sentiment as expressed by the press of England; and the bill became a law upon receiving the royal assent on the 26th of that month, August, 1869; thus removing a great grievance on the part of the vast Catholic majority of the people of Ireland, who had hitherto

been forced to contribute to the support of a Church with which they did not commune.

Mr. Gladstone settled the agrarian troubles in Ireland for the time by the *Irish Land Act* of 1870, which was passed by Parliament after considerable discussion and received the royal assent, and which established a modified tenant-right in every part of Ireland; thus partially removing another grievance of the Irish people.

Mr. Gladstone appeased the Nonconformists, or Dissenters, by the abolition of compulsory church-rates in 1868, and by the abolition of all tests for admission to offices or degrees in the universities. He also undertook important reforms in the management of the British navy; and he carried into effect a plan for the entire reorganization of the British army, after putting an end to the sale of military commissions—a usage which he ended by inducing the queen to cancel the royal warrant legalizing the sale of army commissions, July, 1871, amid the chagrin and dismay of Mr. Disraeli and his Tory followers, who had violently opposed Mr. Gladstone's bill for that purpose, but who did not dare to accept his defiant challenge to a vote of confidence.

Upon the passage of the Second Reform Bill, in 1867, the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, one of the leaders of the Liberal party and one of the great English statesmen of the time, remarked: "Now England must educate her masters." Mr. Gladstone and the other members of his Ministry recognized the fact so tersely expressed by Mr. Lowe. Accordingly Mr. Gladstone furthered the cause of popular education by the introduction of a bill which he carried through Parliament in 1870, providing for the establishment of school boards in every district of the kingdom, and for their support by local taxation.

Mr. Gladstone carried a radical measure of Parliamentary Reform by securing the passage of the Secret Ballot Act by Parliament in 1871, thus enabling voters to cast their suffrages by means of secret ballots instead of by open voting as hitherto.

GARIBALDI'S MOVEMENT ON ROME IN 1867.

At the end of the year 1866 the French garrison was withdrawn from Rome, in accordance with the terms of the Convention of September, 1864. General Garibaldi now announced his intention to wrest Rome from Pope Pius IX. Rattazzi, who had again become Prime Minister of Italy, secretly encouraged Garibaldi's movement, hoping thus to obtain Rome for Italy without incurring the hazard of a war with France; but he managed the affair miserably.

Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers; but while he was preparing to invade the Papal States he was arrested by order of the Italian government, and was conveyed to his home in the island of Caprera. In the meantime his volunteers crossed the Roman frontier without being molested by the Italian government, and Garibaldi was permitted to escape from his island home in Caprera and to rejoin his forces. The sympathy of the Italian government was so open that Garibaldi expected to be supported by the royal army, but this open sympathy of the Italian government had induced the Emperor Napoleon III. to inform that government that he would consider any further attack on the Pope's dominions as a declaration of war against France.

In the meantime Garibaldi had defeated the papal troops at Monte Rotondo, and disturbances had taken place in Rome. Thereupon King Victor Emmanuel of Italy issued a proclamation announcing his determination to prevent any further advance of the Garibaldians upon the papal territories; but the Emperor of the French declared the Convention of September, 1864, broken, and placed a new French garrison in Rome.

Garibaldi believed that the Italian government would be obliged to resent the French Emperor's action, and therefore prepared to disband his volunteers. His garrison at Mentenna surrendered to the French and papal forces, November 4, 1867, after a gallant resistance. The Italian government caused Garibaldi to be arrested while he was on his way to Caprera, but the indignation of the Italian people forced their

government to release him and to permit him to return to his home in Caprera.

The popular indignation in Italy at the failure of Garibaldi's movement forced Rattazzi to resign office for the second time. The other Great Powers so strongly disapproved of the French reoccupation of Rome that the Emperor Napoleon III. declared that it would be ended as soon as a definite arrangement could be made with Italy.

SPANISH REVOLUTION OF 1868.

The dissolute and tyrannical conduct of Queen Isabella II. made her detested by her subjects. Unsuccessful insurrections against her authority occurred at different times, and for several years Spain was in a disturbed condition. Isabella's extravagance and profusion to her favorites produced a growing discontent throughout the Spanish kingdom. In 1868 Gonzales Bravo became Prime Minister of Spain. He summarily arrested and banished seven of the most distinguished Spanish generals, as well as the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier; the latter of whom was the Spanish queen's sister, as already noticed. This arbitrary measure hastened the crisis; and about the middle of September, 1868, the Spanish army, under the leadership of Generals Prim and Serrano, broke out into rebellion. The revolt soon extended throughout the kingdom; and the navy and all the important towns declared against the queen, who had in the meantime repaired to San Sebastian, under pretense of sea-bathing, but really to be near the French frontier in order to consult her ally, the Emperor Napoleon III., who was then at Bayonne. The rebels occupied Madrid, and the queen's authority was at an end. The triumphant rebels established a Central Provisional Junta to conduct public affairs. Upon hearing of the success of the revolution, Queen Isabella the Bad fled across the Pyrenees into France, and was assigned a residence at Pau by the French Emperor. A bloody insurrection against Spanish authority now broke out in the island of Cuba, and continued several years.

In November, 1868, elections for a Con-

stituent Cortes were held in Spain. This Cortes assembled soon afterward, and, after long deliberation, adopted a new monarchical constitution, on the 1st of June, 1869; and General Serrano was appointed regent of the Spanish kingdom until a king should be chosen. General Prim was placed at the head of the Ministry.

In August, 1869, an insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the north-eastern part of Spain; but it was promptly suppressed by the government troops. A republican insurrection in the following month, September, 1869, was also crushed, after the cities of Valencia and Saragossa, where the republicans had determined to make a desperate stand, were taken, after furious assaults and sanguinary fighting in the streets.

Señors Emilio Castelar, Estanislao Figueras, Francisco Salmeron, Nicholas Salmeron, Pi y Margall and other republican leaders, desired a Spanish republic; but the majority of the Spanish nation preferred a liberal constitutional monarchy. The various claimants for the Spanish throne were the Duke of Montpensier; the younger Don Carlos, a grandson of the elder Don Carlos, the deposed queen's uncle and competitor; and Alfonso, Prince of Asturias, the fallen queen's son, in whose favor his mother abdicated in June, 1870. These were all rejected by the Spanish Cortes, which elected Prince Frederick of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. When this prince transferred his claims to his son Leopold, the Emperor Napoleon III. objected; and Leopold's candidacy led to the Franco-German War, whereupon the Hohenzollern prince declined the proffered honor, July, 1870.

On the 17th of November, 1870, the Spanish Cortes, by a vote of one hundred and ninety-one against one hundred and twenty, elected the Duke of Aosta, son of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, King of Spain, with the title of AMADEUS I. In the beginning of January, 1871, the newly-elected king made his entrance into Madrid, and took the oath to support the new constitution of the Spanish nation.

Strong opposition to the new king was

manifested by the Spanish republicans, and also by the Carlists; and General Prim, the ablest of Spanish statesmen, was bitterly hated by the republicans, many of whom regarded him as the chief obstacle in the way of the establishment of a Spanish republic. As General Prim was returning from the Cortes, on the night of the 27th of December, 1870, eight shots were fired at his carriage by a party of assassins in the streets. The general was wounded in three places, and died on the 31st. The death of Prim produced a profound sensation of grief in Madrid and throughout Spain, and great popular indignation was manifested against the assassins. The Cortes adopted a resolution in honor of the memory of the great statesman, declaring that the deceased deserved well of his country, and placed his family under the protection of the nation.

ŒCUMENICAL COUNCIL OF 1869.

An Œcumenical Council representing the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world convened at the Vatican, in Rome, December 8, 1869. After long and deliberate sessions, this ecclesiastical assemblage reaffirmed the doctrine of the Pope's infallibility in matters of faith and morals. All the members of the Roman Catholic Church were required to accept this doctrine as an article of faith on penalty of eternal damnation, and the Church accepted the doctrine without hesitation and without question.

CÆSARISM AND LIBERALISM IN FRANCE.

France had made great gains in material prosperity since the establishment of the Second Empire under Napoleon III. The eighteen years of this Emperor's reign were the most prosperous period that the French nation had ever experienced. The Emperor's administrative talents were only surpassed by those of his illustrious uncle; and under his liberal policy French commerce was carefully built up, the railway system of France was extended, and the manufacturing and mining interests of the country were expanded. The chief cities of France were enlarged, improved and beautified;

and Paris became the most splendid of European capitals.

All this was accomplished by means of an immense expenditure of money, but the heavy taxation of the French people was only a small price of what they were obliged to pay for the remarkable prosperity of the nation. In other respects the Emperor Napoleon III. fell short of what he might have accomplished for his subjects. The mass of the French people were left in ignorance. Education was left under the baleful influence of the Romish priesthood; and free thought was discouraged, if not repressed, wherever it manifested itself.

The Emperor Napoleon III. had written a *Life of Cæsar* in several volumes; and for ten years he had been balancing between two opposite theories of government—Cæsarism, imperialism, or personal government, and the English system of Ministerial responsibility, by which the Ministry are responsible for all the acts of the crown and are removable at any time by a "vote of want of confidence" on the part of the legislative body. Cæsarism, or imperialism, through which Napoleon III. had undertaken to "guarantee order to France," could only be maintained by a succession of French victories on the battle-field, or by a commanding attitude in European diplomacy.

As early as 1863 many opposition members were elected to the Corps Legislatif, and among them were such able statesmen as Louis Adolphe Thiers and Jules Favre. As the Emperor grew feebler toward the close of his reign, in consequence of failing health, he became incapable of giving the same attention to public affairs that he had previously given; and the affairs of state passed into weak and incompetent hands, while the opposition to his system of personal government grew stronger. To conciliate the anti-imperialists, the Emperor ordered the French Senate to prepare a new constitution embodying the principal features of representative government.

The new constitution was promulgated August 15, 1869, the centennial of the birth

of Napoleon I.; but the Emperor's illness, the absence of the Empress Eugenie and her son in Corsica, and the death of Marshal Niel two days before, cast a gloom over the day which accorded well with the prophecies that the year 1869 would prove fatal to the Bonaparte dynasty.

Under the new representative constitution Emile Ollivier was ordered to form a responsible Ministry, and this Ministry included several men of high character who had opposed the Coup d'Etat and imperialism. The new system was submitted to a *plebiscite*, or vote of the French people, May 8, 1870, and was sustained by an overwhelming popular majority, though one-sixth of the army voted against it. The official journals of France had declared very industriously that the "Empire is peace," and that the result of a rejection of the new constitution would be a war with Germany for the Rhine frontier; but events soon showed that the reverse was the case, as we shall now see.

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

Napoleon III. had viewed the rapid growth of Prussia under the able statesmanship of Count von Bismarck with open distrust, and the brilliant triumph of that power in the Seven Weeks' War had alarmed him. The Emperor of the French had long foreseen that a conflict between France and Prussia was inevitable; and Bismarck was well convinced that the unity of Germany could not be accomplished without a struggle with France, whose traditional policy toward Germany was a hankering for the boundary of the Rhine.

In August, 1866, immediately after the Peace of Prague between Austria and Prussia, Napoleon III., through his ambassador at Berlin, Count Benedetti, demanded the cession of the German territory on the west side of the Rhine to France as a compensation for the increased power of Prussia. In reply to the French Emperor's demand for the Rhine frontier as the "natural boundary" of France, Bismarck pronounced the claim "inadmissible;" whereupon Napoleon III. immediately withdrew the claim.

Count Benedetti then presented the French Emperor's scheme for the annexation of Belgium to France, in return for which France would support Prussia in the subjection of South Germany to that power. The Prussian Prime Minister gave no reply to this proposition, but laid the draft of the proposed treaty, in the French ambassador's handwriting, among the Prussian archives for future use.

In the spring of 1867 the Emperor of the French quietly attempted to purchase the Duchy of Luxemburg from the King of



BISMARCK.

Holland, who was very anxious to sell that province, as he was always in need of money, and as the province was of little value to him. But Bismarck foiled the scheme by claiming Luxemburg as a part of Germany and placing a Prussian garrison in it. The North German Confederation protested against the proposed sale of Luxemburg, and prepared to support her protest by force of arms. It appeared likely that the affair would result in war between France and Prussia; but this danger was averted by a conference of the Five Great Powers at London, in May, 1867, which settled the question by separating Luxemburg from Germany, forming it into a neutral state, and guaranteeing its neutrality.

These repeated diplomatic failures seri-

ously injured the prestige of France, which had held the first place among the European powers since the War of Italian Nationality in 1859. The Emperor Napoleon III. was intensely mortified by his successive diplomatic defeats, and Prussia's influence was vastly raised by Bismarck's firmness on these occasions. Great ill-feeling thereafter existed between France and Prussia, and a considerable party in France was anxious for immediate war with Prussia; but the French Emperor wisely disregarded their clamors for the time, well knowing that a complete rearming of the French army was necessary before he could be able to cope with Prussia on the battle-field. The Seven Weeks' War of 1866 had clearly demonstrated the superiority of breech-loading fire-arms, as the Prussian needle-gun had won the great and decisive victory over the Austrians at Sadowa; and, as it was believed that a struggle with Prussia was inevitable, the reorganization and reëquipment of the French army was pushed with vigor, the troops being armed with the breech-loading chassepot rifle.

At the beginning of July, 1870, General Prim, the Prime Minister of Spain, with the consent of Serrano, the regent of that country, invited Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a German prince, to become a candidate for the vacant throne of Spain. Regarding the candidature of this prince as a menace to France on the part of Spain and Prussia, the French government violently opposed the project; and the Duke de Gramont, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, immediately informed the governments of Spain and Prussia that France would not consent to the election of a Prussian prince to the throne of Spain.

On the 5th of July, Emile Ollivier, the French Prime Minister, held a consultation with the Duke de Gramont and Señor Olazaga, the Spanish ambassador at Paris; and the result was a sharp diplomatic note to Baron Werther, the Prussian ambassador to France. Immediately after receiving the note, Baron Werther started for Ems to meet the King of Prussia. General Prim refused

to abandon the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern until the Spanish Cortes should have decided on the question; and the Prussian government, in reply to the diplomatic note from the French Cabinet, stated that Prussia did nothing toward obtaining the offer of the Spanish crown for Prince Leopold, that the consent of the King of Prussia to its acceptance would be given after the Spanish Cortes had acted on the question, and that if the Cortes should choose the prince to the vacant throne Prussia would support him.

At a Council of Ministers in Madrid the course of General Prim was unanimously approved, and the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern was accepted. It was believed in Paris that Prim and the Count von Bismarck had for some time been secretly intriguing for the elevation of the Prince of Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne. Spain denied that she was influenced by Prussia in regard to the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern; and Prussia declared herself innocent of all political intrigue, and asserted that she had no right nor inclination to dictate to Spain, or to the Prince of Hohenzollern. England, Austria and Russia made vain efforts for the preservation of peace.

France was now making the most earnest military preparations, and the Garde Mobile and the Garde Nationale were put upon a war-footing. The greatest activity prevailed at Toulon, Cherbourg and other French ports; and troops were being rapidly moved eastward toward the Rhine. The Imperial Guards were placed under the command of Marshal Bazaine; and Marshal MacMahon was ordered home from Algeria, to take command of the French army which was to operate on the Rhine. Marshal Canrobert and Generals Faily and Frossard were also appointed to important commands.

On the 12th of July, 1870, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, declining to be the cause of a European war, formally withdrew as a candidate for the Spanish throne. Not satisfied with the conduct of the King of Prussia in sanctioning the withdrawal of the candidacy of Prince Leopold

as head of the Hohenzollern family, the French government demanded that he should do it as King of Prussia. But King William declined to do this, as he regarded such a step as inconsistent with the dignity to which Prussia was entitled as one of the first-class powers of the world. Prussian troops were now also hurried to the Rhine.

At this juncture Bismarck published the draft of the secret treaty which Count Benedetti had presented to him on behalf of Napoleon III. in 1867. This publication aroused great excitement and indignation toward France throughout Europe, especially in Great Britain, which had guaranteed the independence of Belgium. The British government demanded from the French Emperor the most ample guarantees for his observance of the neutrality of Belgium in his impending conflict with Prussia.

On the 14th of July, 1870, Count Benedetti, the French ambassador to Prussia, demanded an audience of King William, at Ems, for the purpose of securing the perpetual renunciation of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as a candidate for the throne of Spain; but as the king refused to receive him he started for Paris; and on the following day, July 15, 1870, the French Corps Legislatif declared war against Prussia.

Both the French and the Prussian people were enthusiastic in support of their respective governments. All the German states rallied to the aid of Prussia, and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was ordered. The Crown-Prince Frederick William of Prussia was placed in command of the South German armies; while his cousin, Prince Frederick Charles, was appointed to take command of the forces of North Germany. Although King William of Prussia was the nominal commander-in-chief of the German armies, the direction of the military operations of Germany was in the hands of the skillful general, Count von Moltke. After concentrating between Mayence and Coblenz, the Prussian forces were moved to the French frontier.

After concentrating in the vicinity of Nancy, Metz and Thionville, the French forces were moved forward to the German frontier. In the latter part of July the Emperor Napoleon III. left Paris for the seat of war, and took the chief command of the French armies. The principal French armies were the Army of the Moselle, under Marshal



FIELD-MARSHAL, VON MOLTKE.

Bazaine, in the neighborhood of Metz and Thionville; and the Army of the Rhine, under Marshal MacMahon, in the vicinity of Strasburg. There was also a large army of reserves, under Marshal Canrobert, at Chalons-sur-Marne.

Toward the end of July the German troops, seven hundred thousand in number, occupied a line along the French frontier, extending from the Moselle to the Rhine. The French troops, three hundred and fifty thousand in number, were assembled at various points along the frontier, directly opposite the Prussian line. Skirmishes occurred at Saarbrücken, on the 30th of July and on the 1st of August, in which the French were repulsed; but on the 2d of August the town was captured by the French after a sharp fight. In his dispatch to the Empress, the Emperor stated that the Prince Imperial had received "his baptism of fire," and that the officers shed tears at his bravery.

5-104.-U. H.

On the 4th of August the frontier town of Weissembourg was captured by a part of the Prussian army under the Crown-Prince Frederick William, after a spirited engagement, in which the French General Douay was killed, and eight hundred French troops were made prisoners by the Prussians. The Prussian victory at Weissembourg was followed by a general advance of the whole Prussian line into France, and the Count von Moltke immediately assumed an offensive attitude.

On the 6th of August was fought the battle of Wörth or Froschwiller, in which the Crown-Prince of Prussia, with a large force of Prussians and Bavarians, defeated the French under Marshal MacMahon, separated them from the remainder of the French army, and made four thousand of them prisoners. The total French loss was eleven thousand men, and the Prussian loss was thirty-five hundred. On the very day of the battle of Wörth, August 6, 1870, the Prussian right, under General von Steinmetz, recaptured Saarbrücken, carried the heights of Spicheren after a severe struggle, and completely defeated the French under General Frossard in the battle of Forbach, and afterward compelled them to evacuate Forbach, St. Avold and Thionville, and took eight thousand of them prisoners. The whole French line fell back on Metz, followed by the Prussians.

When intelligence of the defeats of the French arms at Weissembourg, Wörth and Forbach reached Paris the inhabitants of that proud capital manifested the most intense indignation; and the greatest excitement and consternation prevailed. It was feared that a sudden revolution would take place, and result in the overthrow of the Bonaparte dynasty.

Bulletins were posted on the Bourse at Paris on that fatal 6th of August, 1870, announcing the annihilation of the Prussian Crown-Prince's army and a glorious French victory. A swiftly following rumor declared the bulletin a falsehood, and whispered that the Ministry had invented it for their own personal account to speculate in the public

funds. Ollivier's palace was mobbed by an indignant multitude demanding correct news from the seat of war. The defeat at Wissembourg was thus far only known, but the next day the disasters at Wörth and Forbach were also announced. Thereupon the excitable Parisians were seized with the utmost despondency and held the Ministry responsible. The Empress Eugenie, as regent, convened the Senate and Corps Legislatif on the 9th, August, 1870. Ollivier's speech was interrupted by a storm of opposition, and his Cabinet at once resigned. A new "Ministry of Public Defense" was organized under Count Palikao. Marshal Lebœuf, who commanded under the Emperor, resigned; and Marshal Bazaine was made commander-in-chief of all the French armies.

The Prussian right and center, under General von Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles, now advanced on Metz; and sixty thousand South German troops, under General von Werder, laid siege to Strasburg. At the same time the Prussian left under the Crown-Prince followed the shattered forces of Marshal MacMahon in the direction of Nancy. On the 13th of August, MacMahon evacuated Nancy, which was immediately taken possession of by the victorious forces of the Crown-Prince, MacMahon retreating to Chalons-sur-Marne.

After the 1st and 2d Prussian armies had reached the Moselle, the French army under Marshal Bazaine at Metz attempted to retreat from that strong fortress on the 14th of August, but was met and defeated at Courcelles by the 1st Prussian army under General von Steinmetz and driven back with heavy loss. On the following day, August 15, 1870, the 1st Prussian army crossed the Moselle between Metz and Thionville, to cut off Bazaine's retreat to Paris by the northern road to Verdun; while the 2d Prussian army, which had already passed the Moselle south of Metz, seized the southern road. On the 16th a fierce and bloody battle was fought at Vionville, between Metz and Verdun, in which the French were defeated by the 2d Prussian army under

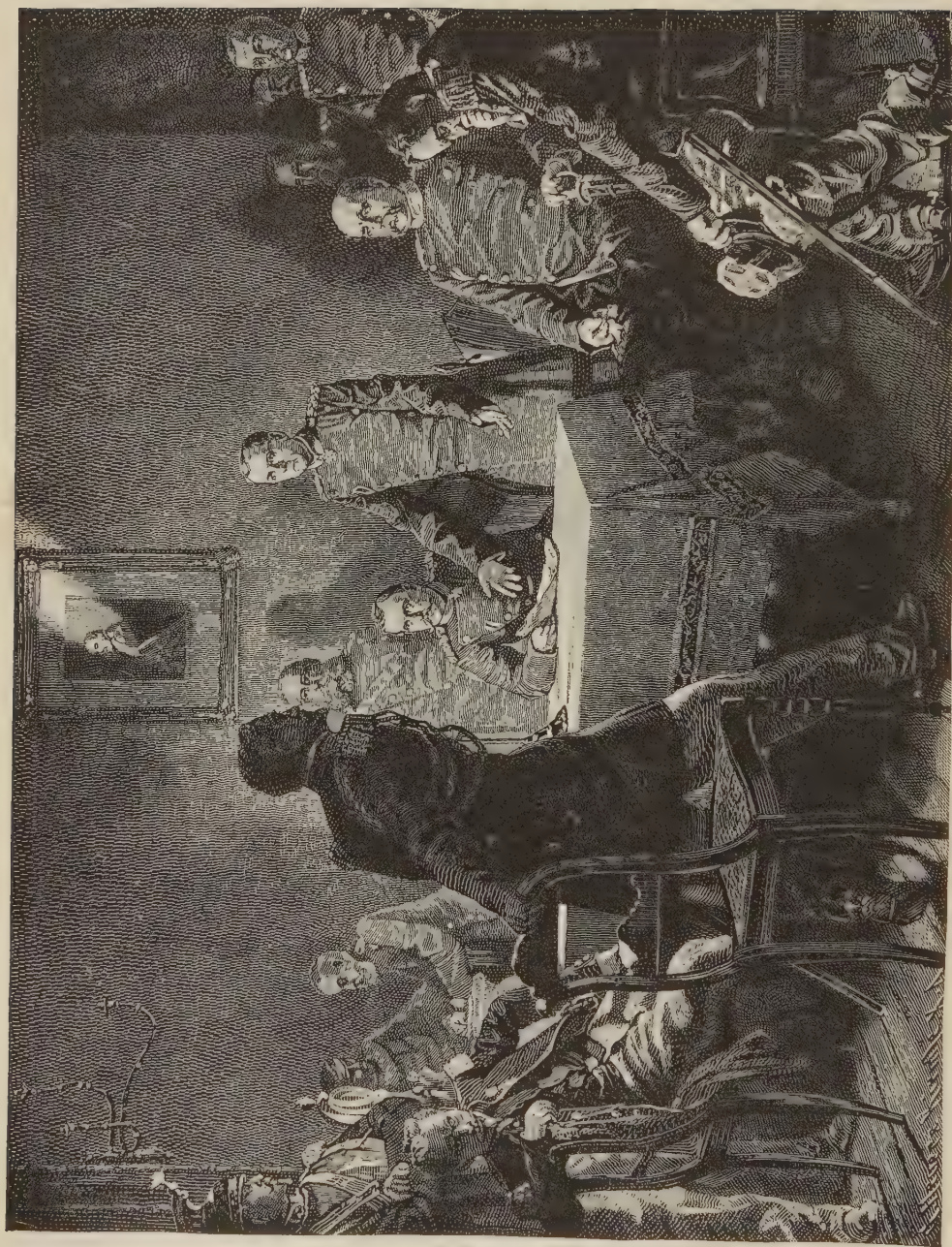
Prince Frederick Charles. Bazaine's army was now in a perilous situation. On the 17th the Prussians hurried the remainder of their corps across the Moselle for the final struggle. On the 18th, August, 1870, occurred the sanguinary battle of Gravelotte or Rezonville, west of Metz, which raged for nine hours, and in which Marshal Bazaine's army was again most disastrously defeated. The carnage on both sides was frightful. The battle-field and neighboring villages were strewn with dead. During this week of battles the French lost fifty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. The victorious Prussians also lost heavily. Thus every attempt at retreat which Bazaine made was defeated. He was now blockaded in the vicinity of Metz, with no hope whatever of extricating himself from his perilous position. All communication between him and Paris was severed, and an attempt to move in any direction would result in another disastrous defeat of his army.

While the 1st and 2d Prussian armies, under General von Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles, were holding Bazaine fast at Metz, the Crown-Prince of Prussia, with the 3d Prussian army, two hundred thousand strong, having passed Metz on the south, was rapidly advancing toward Paris by way of Chalons-sur-Marne, MacMahon with his defeated and shattered forces retreating before him. King William at length removed his headquarters from the Prussian armies near Metz to Bar-le-Duc, and then accompanied the Crown-Prince on his march toward Paris. In the meantime a sharp conflict occurred at Verdun between a French detachment and ten thousand German troops under the command of the Crown-Prince of Saxony, and Vritz-le-Français was captured by the Prussians after a spirited engagement.

At length, when MacMahon, after having evacuated Chalons-sur-Marne, on the 23d of August, and after being reinforced, attempted to fly to the relief of Bazaine near Metz, the Prussian Crown-Prince, suddenly relinquishing his march toward the French



BATTLE OF MARS-LA-TOUR.



THE SURRENDER OF SEDAN.

capital, followed his antagonist northward toward the frontier of Belgium. MacMahon's army was also threatened by the forces of Prince Frederick Charles. There was heavy

MacMahon made a movement toward Montmedy; but his army was attacked at Beaumont, and, after a tremendous conflict, was utterly defeated and driven across the Meuse,



FRENCH CUIRASSIERS IN THE BATTLE OF SEDAN.

skirmishing, on the 28th and 29th of August, between the armies of MacMahon and the Crown-Prince. On the 30th, August, 1870,

toward the Belgian frontier, by the Prussian forces under the Crown-Prince. The Prussians captured twelve cannon and thousands

of prisoners. During the night both the French and Prussian armies received large reinforcements; and on the following day, August 31, 1870, the battle was renewed, and, after the most desperate fighting, the French were again disastrously defeated, and driven to Sedan.

At daylight on the 1st of September, 1870, MacMahon's army, which was now reinforced, occupied a strong elevated position around the fortified town of Sedan, near the Belgian frontier. About five o'clock in the morning the Prussians commenced the great battle of Sedan by simultaneous attacks on the French front and left flank. During a great part of the forenoon the fighting was confined mainly to the artillery of both armies, but at length the firing of musketry became quite lively. About noon the Prussian infantry made a furious attempt to break the French center, but after the most desperate fighting they were repulsed. Afterward a simultaneous movement was made along the whole line of the Prussians, their infantry charging the French guns. After the French cuirassiers had failed in a charge on the Prussian skirmishers at the La Givonne hills, the French infantry made a desperate assault, but they also met with a disastrous repulse. At three o'clock the French line, which had thus far gallantly withstood the Prussian assaults, wavered, and soon afterward broke. The battle now became a rout. The victorious Prussians hotly pursued the French troops, who, leaving everything behind them, were fleeing in dismay from the field and throwing away their arms. The pursuing Prussians used the bayonet with terrible effect, as they were determined to cut off the French retreat toward Belgium. Night put an end to the rout and pursuit, and the broken hosts of the French army took refuge in the fortress of Sedan. The Prussians had won a brilliant victory, but at the cost of thirty thousand men in killed and wounded. The defeated French army had lost twenty thousand men. On the 31st of August and the 1st of September, 1870, Marshal Bazaine made another desperate effort to escape from Metz; but he was

again defeated by Prince Frederick Charles in the battle of Noisseville and driven back into the fortress.

On the 2d of September, 1870, the French army under Marshal MacMahon, then numbering one hundred and eight thousand men, and being entirely surrounded at Sedan, without any hope of escape whatever, was surrendered prisoners of war to King William of Prussia, by General Wimpffen, instead of Marshal MacMahon, who was severely wounded. The Emperor Napoleon III., who had been with MacMahon at Sedan, but who then held no command in the army, surrendered himself a prisoner to King William. In his letter to the King of Prussia, proposing surrender, the French Emperor said: "As I cannot die at the head of my army, I come to lay my sword at the feet of Your Majesty." As soon as it was known in the Prussian army that Napoleon III. was a prisoner to King William, the cry ran along the lines: "*Der Kaiser ist da!*" "The Cæsar (Emperor) is here!" The Prussian bands struck up the air, *Die Wacht am Rhein*, "The Watch on the Rhine."

The King of Prussia treated his imperial captive with great courtesy and generosity, and allotted to him the castle of Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, for a residence during his captivity in Germany. Thus, five weeks after the commencement of hostilities at Saarbrücken, the military power of France was thoroughly broken. The imperial career of Napoleon III. had now ended, and the Second French Empire had received its death-blow.

When intelligence of the capitulation of MacMahon's army at Sedan and the surrender of the Emperor spread through Paris, the excitement of the people of that city became almost indescribable. The streets were filled with excited crowds, who demanded the dethronement of the Bonaparte dynasty and the establishment of a new French Republic. A stormy scene took place in the Corps Legislatif. On Sunday, September 4, 1870, the French capital was in revolution. The popular agitation grad-

ually became greater, and at length unparalleled excitement prevailed throughout the city. The Place de la Concorde was one mass of human beings, and the Boulevards were impassable on account of the immense crowds assembled there. The National Guards, however, succeeded in preserving order. The soldiers and National Guards fraternized with the people, singing the *Marseillaise* and wildly shouting: "Vive la Republique!" The Corps Legislatif was surrounded by hundreds and thousands of

ernment of National Defense, was immediately organized, consisting of eleven persons—Emanuel Arago, Emanuel Crémieux, Jules Favre, Jules Ferry, Jules Simon, Leon Gambetta, Garnier Pages, Ernest Picard, Henri Rochefort, Glais Bizoin and Eugene Pelletan—all representatives of Paris. The Parisians were wild with joy at the dethronement of the Emperor and the inauguration of the new Republic. They embraced each other and wept for joy. The Paris mob, which again



BISMARCK ACCOMPANYING THE CARRIAGE OF NAPOLEON III. TO THE CASTLE OF WILHELMSHOHE.

excited Parisians, who demanded the deposition of the Bonapartes and the establishment of a republic.

The Senate was suppressed and the Corps Legislatif dissolved, after proclaiming, by a unanimous vote, that the Bonaparte dynasty had forfeited the Crown of France. The Republican members of the Corps Legislatif then proceeded to the Hotel de Ville, where they proclaimed France a Republic. A provisional government, entitled the *Gov-*

ruled supreme, was destroying in spite and fury. All signs having imperial arms and medals were torn down. The mob invaded the great palace of the Tuileries, tore down the throne, destroyed everything marked with the imperial insignia, and carried away and cast into the river Seine all the busts, statues and pictures of the Bonaparte family.

On the following day, September 5, 1870, the provisional government issued a proclamation announcing that a Republic had

been proclaimed at the Hotel de Ville. The provisional government also decreed that the Corps Legislatif was dissolved and the Senate abolished, and accorded full amnesty for all political crimes and offenses against the Empire. This sudden and remarkable revolution was accomplished without the sacrifice of a single life. The greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout France, and the people of the departments everywhere accepted the Republic. The Empress Eugenie had fled from Paris and gone to England. The government of the United States promptly recognized the new French Republic.

After the surrender of MacMahon's army and of the Emperor Napoleon III. at Sedan, the Crown-Princes of Prussia and Saxony, accompanied by King William, the Count von Moltke and the Count von Bismarck, marched against Paris, at the head of four hundred thousand German troops. The fortified town of Laon surrendered to the Prussians on the 10th of September; but the citadel was treacherously blown up, killing several hundred French and German soldiers. The immense German armies upon their arrival before Paris, about the middle of September, 1870, prepared for a vigorous siege of that great capital.

After the establishment of the Government of National Defense in Paris, on the 4th of September, energetic efforts on the part of France were made for peace with Germany. The venerable statesman and historian, Louis Adolphe Thiers, made a pilgrimage to London, Vienna and St. Petersburg, to secure the mediation of the British, Austrian and Russian governments; but he was unsuccessful in his efforts. The distinguished Jules Favre, the new French Minister of Foreign Affairs, visited Count von Bismarck, and endeavored to procure a cessation of hostilities and the conclusion of a treaty of peace. Favre offered many humiliating concessions to Germany; but Bismarck's harsh demand that the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine should be ceded to Germany, and the non-existence of a permanent government in France, ren-

dered the efforts at peace abortive; and thus this sanguinary war was left to continue. The French refused to surrender "an inch of land or a stone of a fortress."

Soon after the German armies had entered France, sixty thousand South German troops under General von Werder invested Strasburg, the chief city of the French province of Alsace, which was garrisoned by about twenty thousand French troops under General Uhrich. Although the city suffered heavily from the fierce bombardments which the besieging Germans opened upon it, being often on fire in different places, and the tower of its beautiful Cathedral being shattered, the garrison held out heroically for two months, refusing repeated demands for surrender, and making many desperate sorties. Finally, on the 27th of September, 1870, after the garrison and the inhabitants had suffered from famine, and any further defense being impossible, General Uhrich surrendered the city of Strasburg and its garrison, then consisting of seventeen thousand men, to General von Werder. The city was immediately occupied by the conquering Germans, and placed under German rule.

On the 16th of September, 1870, the German armies, half a million strong, began the investment of Paris; and on the same day the city was declared in a state of siege. The headquarters of King William were established at Ferrieres, of the Crown-Prince of Prussia at Versailles, and of the Crown-Prince of Saxony at Grand Tremblay. The French capital was garrisoned by about two hundred and thirty thousand troops, under the command of General Trochu. The Parisians were determined to defend their city to the last extremity, resolving to emulate Metz and Strasburg. Before the siege had commenced, the city had been supplied with immense stores of provisions. Paris, surrounded by a strong wall, the enceinte, and by numerous fortifications, was impregnable to attack, and could only be conquered by starvation. The principal forts defending the city—Valerien, d' Issy, Vanvres, Montrouge, Bicetre, Noissy and Rosny—were strongly garrisoned.

EMPEROR WILLIAM AND STAFF AT THE SIEGE OF PARIS.





COUNT VON MOLTKE.

Numerous engagements of an unimportant character occurred around Paris during the latter part of September and throughout October. On the 30th of September a severe conflict took place between the French troops of the line and the Prussians, resulting in the

enter or leave the beleaguered capital. All communication between Paris and the outside world was cut off, except by means of balloons. Before Paris had been completely surrounded by the besieging Germans, some of the members of the French provisional



STRASBURG CATHEDRAL.

repulse of the French, who took refuge behind the forts. On the 22d of October, Paris was completely surrounded by the German army of investment, about three hundred thousand strong; and the German military authorities permitted no person whatever to

government established themselves at Tours, while the others remained in the besieged capital. Communication between Paris and Tours was kept up by the dangerous service of balloons.

General Garibaldi and his two sons enlist-

ed in the service of the French Republic, and Garibaldi himself was placed in command of the French Army of the Vosges.

In the meantime a new French army of more than one hundred thousand men had been formed on the Loire. A portion of this army was defeated by a German force under General Von Der Tann, near Orleans, on the 10th of October. The French fled in disorder, leaving ten thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious Germans. On the 12th of October the French Army of the Loire was defeated at Orleans, after nine hours' fighting. The Prussians took Orleans by storm and captured ten thousand prisoners.

On the 17th of October, Soissons capitulated to the Germans commanded by the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, after an obstinate contest of four days and the most sanguinary fighting in the streets, no quarter being shown to the wounded, the women from the houses hurling missiles upon the heads of the Germans, and much of the city being destroyed.

After many unsuccessful sorties, and when famine had begun to threaten the army and citizens of Metz with its horrors, Marshal Bazaine surrendered the city of Metz, one of the most strongly-fortified places in the world, together with his army, then consisting of one hundred and seventy-three thousand men, and all his artillery, small arms and ammunition, to Prince Frederick Charles, on the 27th of October. This disgraceful capitulation produced the most intense indignation throughout France. Bazaine, who had never recognized the Republic, was suspected of treachery by his countrymen; and the Government of National Defense ordered the arrest of the marshal wherever found in France. King William created the Crown-Prince of Prussia and Prince Frederick Charles Field-Marsals. This was the first instance of any such dignity being conferred upon any prince of the House of Hohenzollern.

In the latter part of October and in the beginning of November, 1870, in consequence of the fall of Metz, renewed efforts

were made on the part of France for peace. Bismarck's firm refusal to consent to an armistice on any other basis than the cession of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, and his rejection of the proposition for the revictualling of Paris, as conditions of the proposed armistice, rendered all efforts at an armistice, as the forerunner of a treaty of peace, fruitless; and both parties determined upon the continuation of the terrible struggle.

After the German victories near and at Orleans, in October, the French Army of the Loire was gradually augmenting in numerical strength. On the 9th of November, after a severe battle of two days, the Army of the Loire, one hundred and fifty thousand strong, under the command of General d'Aurelles de Paladines, inflicted a disastrous defeat on the German forces commanded by General Von Der Tann, at Coulmiers, near Orleans, and recaptured that city. The German loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was twelve thousand men. Following up his victory, Paladines again defeated Von Der Tann at Arthenay, the next day, November 10, 1870. The defeated and shattered forces of Von Der Tann retreated hastily in the direction of Paris.

On the 10th of November the town of Dijon, in Eastern France, which had in the meantime fallen into the hands of the Prussians, was recaptured by the French Army of the East; but on the 16th of the same month, November, 1870, Dijon was reoccupied by the Prussians in heavy force. On the 25th of November, Thionville surrendered to the Prussians, after a fierce bombardment, by which a great part of that town was reduced to ashes. Two days later, November 27, 1870, a French force was badly beaten at Amiens by the Prussians under General Manteuffel, and was driven toward Arras with severe loss.

On the 28th of November, after five days' fighting in the vicinity of Orleans between the French Army of the Loire and the Germans under the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg, the design of Paladines to advance to

the relief of Paris was frustrated. On the 4th of December, after four days' heavy fighting near Orleans, the Army of the Loire suffered a disastrous defeat from the German armies commanded by Prince Frederick Charles and the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg. The Germans took ten thousand prisoners and reoccupied Orleans, which had been evacuated by the French. The Army of the Loire retreated southward toward Blois, closely pursued by the victorious forces of Prince Frederick Charles. On the 10th of December, after three days' fighting in the vicinity of Meung, eleven miles south-west of Orleans, the Army of the Loire was defeated by the Germans under the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg. On the 14th of December, after four days' more fighting, around Beaugency, the Army of the Loire retired to Blois and Tours. General d'Aurelles de Paladines now resigned his command and retired to his estate. The French provisional government had already left Tours, and had been installed at Bordeaux.

On the 28th, 29th and 30th of November, 1870, General Trochu made sorties from Paris on a large scale; but his assaults were repulsed by the Germans, and his troops were driven behind the fortifications of the city. On the 2d of December a French force of one hundred and fifty thousand men under General Ducrot, having been

sent out of Paris by General Trochu on the preceding day, made a desperate attempt to force the German line of investment, and partially succeeded, compelling the Saxons and Württembergers, one hundred thousand in number, to fall back, after a sanguinary conflict of seven hours. Several days afterward Ducrot's force was compelled to retire back into Paris. During the Christmas holidays the weather around Paris was intensely cold, and thousands of French and

German soldiers were frozen to death.

On the 14th of December the fortress of Pfalz-burg, in the Vosges mountains, surrendered unconditionally to the Germans, who had laid siege to the place soon after the battle of Wörth. On the following day, December 15, 1870, Montmedy, near the Belgian frontier, also capitulated to a German besieging force.

For several months negotiations had been in progress for



WILLIAM I., KING OF PRUSSIA AND EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

a union of the South German states—Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt—with the North German Confederation. These negotiations were successfully completed in the early part of December, 1870; and, on the 9th of that month, the King of Prussia, with the desire of the German princes and people, accepted the title of *Emperor of Germany*. On the 18th of January, 1871, in the presence of all the German princes, in the Hall of Mirrors,



WILLIAM I., KING OF PRUSSIA, PROCLAIMED EMPEROR OF GERMANY, AT VERSAILLES, JANUARY 18, 1871.

at Versailles, in France, King WILLIAM of Prussia was formally proclaimed Emperor of Germany. Thus the long aspirations and dreams of the German people for the unity of their Fatherland were finally realized in the creation of a new *German Empire*, under the House of Hohenzollern.

Having grown impatient at the lengthy duration of the siege of Paris, the Germans determined to compel the devoted capital to surrender by assault and bombardment. In the latter part of December, 1870, the besiegers opened a heavy bombardment on Fort Avron, which was in consequence evacuated by its French garrison, and immediately occupied by German troops, December 30, 1870. The forts on the east and south sides of Paris were so vigorously bombarded that some of them—Forts Noissy, Rosny, d'Issy, and Vanvres—were at length silenced; but they again resumed fire, and replied as vigorously to the fire from the German batteries. Both the French and German armies suffered much from the severity of the season. Much damage was done to the suburban villages of Paris by the heavy fire from the German batteries; but the Parisians, although suffering greatly from the inconveniences and miseries of the siege, were as determined as ever upon defense. Thousands of balls from the German guns fell in the suburbs of Paris; creating havoc in all directions; killing men, women and children in the streets and houses; striking ambulances, hospitals, museums, public libraries, churches, school-houses and dwellings; and setting many portions of the city on fire. The horrors of the bombardment inflamed the Parisians with rage, and made them more resolute than ever in their intention to resist to the utmost. On the 9th of January, 1871, a severe action occurred at the village of Clamart, in which the Prussians were victorious. On the 10th of January, General Trochu was repulsed in a sally on the north side of Paris, from St. Denis; and on the 11th an unsuccessful sortie was made on the south side, between Forts Vanvres and Montrouge. On the 19th of January a great sortie was made from

Fort Valerien by General Trochu, but he was repulsed with the loss of three thousand men.

The French Army of the Loire under General Chanzy assumed the offensive about the beginning of January, 1871; and the Germans under Prince Frederick Charles were concentrating at Orleans, with the view of preventing Chanzy's army from advancing to the relief of Paris. A severe engagement occurred near Vendôme, on the 6th of January, between the Army of the Loire and the forces under Prince Frederick Charles, which resulted in the defeat of the French, who were in consequence compelled to retreat westward, closely pursued by the Germans. After a series of spirited actions, Chanzy's army was driven to Le Mans, where a general battle was fought on the 11th of January. The German army under Prince Frederick Charles attacked the Army of the Loire along the whole line, carried all the French positions, occupied Le Mans, and then went in hot pursuit of the defeated and fleeing hosts of General Chanzy. On the 15th, January, 1871, another battle took place, which ended in another defeat for Chanzy, who then continued his retreat westward to Laval. The loss of the Germans in these battles was only thirty-five hundred men, while they made twenty-two thousand prisoners. The Army of the Loire was now thoroughly crippled, and the last hope of the French for the relief of their capital had vanished.

In the meantime there had been great activity in the movements of the French Army of the North, commanded by General Faidherbe, which was endeavoring to coöperate with the Army of the Loire in its efforts to raise the siege of Paris. On the 23d of December, 1870, Faidherbe's army, then numbering sixty thousand men, was defeated and routed near Amiens by the Germans under General Manteuffel. At length Faidherbe's army met with some successes, which led to the concentration of the German forces in the North of France under General Manteuffel. On the 3d of January, 1871, the French Army of the North was

repulsed in an attack upon a portion of General Manteuffel's army at Bapaume. After the battle Faidherbe's army hastily retreated, and was vigorously pursued by the German cavalry. On the 19th of January, 1871, a severe battle was fought at St. Quentin, in which Faidherbe's army was defeated by the Germans, who lost over three thousand men, but captured four thousand prisoners. Faidherbe then retreated northward, and near the close of January he reached Dunkirk.

At the close of December, 1870, a French army of more than one hundred thousand men, under General Bourbaki, moved into Eastern France to operate against the Germans under General von Werder in the vicinity of Belfort. The Germans laid siege to Belfort, but were repulsed in an assault upon the fortifications of the town. On the 10th of January, 1871, General von Werder took Viller Exel by storm, and repulsed the French in their attempts to recapture the place. On the 17th of January, after three days of severe fighting at Belfort, the French Army of the East under General Bourbaki met with a disastrous repulse, and, after a loss of eight thousand men, was compelled to retreat, closely pursued by the victorious Germans. In a series of skirmishes with the Prussians, Bourbaki's army was successful. General Manteuffel, who was now placed in chief command of the German armies in Eastern France, prepared to bring about the destruction of the French Army of the East. Bourbaki's defeated and shattered army retreated to Besançon, closely pursued by Manteuffel's victorious forces. These disasters to the French arms had such an effect upon the mind of General Bourbaki that he attempted suicide. After a series of engagements, lasting three days and ending on the 1st of February, on the Swiss frontier, Manteuffel captured fifteen thousand prisoners, and compelled Bourbaki's army, eighty thousand strong, to retreat into Switzerland.

On the 22d of January, 1871, the Prussians in large force attacked Dijon; but they were disastrously repulsed, after a severe battle of five hours, and were forced to

retreat. By the 20th of January the town of Longwy, near the Belgian frontier, had been completely invested by a Prussian force. The French garrison made two successful sorties, dislodging the Prussians and silencing their batteries; but, after a furious assault and bombardment, Longwy, with its garrison of four thousand French troops, fell into the hands of the Prussians on the 25th of January.

At length, after the French capital had suffered terribly from the fierce bombardment by the Germans, and after famine had wrought its horrors upon the inhabitants of the beleaguered city, the besieged made proposals of surrender to the besiegers; and on the 28th of January, 1871, the articles of capitulation were signed by which the city of Paris was surrendered to the Germans, and its garrison of one hundred and eighty-five thousand men under General Trochu became prisoners of war. The Germans levied a contribution of two hundred million francs upon the conquered city, and the forts around the city were immediately occupied by German garrisons. Measures were taken for the revictualling of the city under German supervision. For several weeks after the surrender, hundreds of Parisians died daily from starvation.

The fall of Paris opened the eyes of the French government and people to the hopelessness and folly of resistance to the gigantic power of Germany, and made them anxious for the speedy conclusion of peace. An armistice of three weeks was signed at Versailles, on the 28th of January, by Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire, in order to allow the French people to elect representatives to a National Assembly, which should convene at Bordeaux to consider and ratify a treaty of peace with Germany. Each of the different parties in France—the Legitimists, the Orleanists, the Bonapartists and the Republicans—made great efforts for success in the election for deputies to the proposed National Assembly. The elections took place on the 8th of February, and resulted



RADETZKY DE RADETZ.



PRINCE FREDERICK CHARLES OF PRUSSIA.



CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM OF PRUSSIA.



SHAMYL, THE DEFENDER OF THE CAUCASUS.

THE MODERN AGE.

in the choice mostly of Orleanists and Republicans. The National Assembly convened at Bordeaux on the 15th of February, 1871; and upon its organization it unanimously chose Louis Adolphe Thiers, the distinguished historian, orator and statesman, to the office of President of the French Republic, and took measures for the speedy restoration of peace.

After much negotiation, the armistice having been in the meantime extended one week, a preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Versailles, on the 26th of February, 1871, by President Thiers and Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire. France was required to cede to Germany nearly the whole of Alsace, including Strasburg, and one-fifth of Lorraine, including Metz, and to pay five milliards of francs (equal to one thousand million dollars) in three years, as indemnity for the losses sustained by Germany in the war. A large portion of the German army was to garrison a number of the French fortresses until the entire indemnity was paid, the expense of supporting this army of occupation to be paid by France; and the Emperor William and a portion of the German army were to enter Paris and occupy the Champs Elysees. On the 1st of March 1871, the National Assembly at Bordeaux, by a large majority, ratified these terms of peace, so harsh and humiliating to France; and the great *Franco-German War* ended.

On the 1st of March, 1871, the Emperor William of Germany and thirty thousand German troops made their grand triumphal entry into the French capital. Contrary to the expectations of many, no acts of violence were committed toward them, few of the inhabitants of the city appearing in the streets. The Germans evacuated Paris two days afterward, March 3, 1871; and on the 14th the Emperor William started for Berlin, where he arrived on the 17th, March 1871. The ex-Emperor Napoleon III was released from his captivity at Wilhelmshöhe by the German government, on the 6th of March: whereupon he left Germany, and retired to

Chiselhurst, in England, where he died on the 9th of January, 1873.

The war just closed was the greatest of modern times. During the six months that military operations were in progress, nearly half a million human lives were sacrificed. The successes of Germany in this mighty conflict were among the most remarkable in the annals of war. Her armies were victorious in nearly every encounter; three of the most strongly-fortified places in the world yielded to the power of her arms; three of the largest armies ever raised were compelled to lay down their arms; the proudest capital in the world was occupied by her warriors; and the once-proudest monarch in Europe was made a captive. In all, seven hundred thousand French soldiers were made prisoners during the war. The pride of France was thoroughly humbled, and her sword was broken.

On the 10th of May, 1871, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Frankfort-on-the-Main, by Jules Favre and Pouyer-Quertier on the part of France, and by Prince Bismarck on the part of Germany. Bismarck agreed to a reduction of the war indemnity to be paid by France to Germany, from five milliards of francs to four and a half milliards. The French were required to restore all the German ships captured during the war, or to refund their value in cash in cases in which the vessels were sold. According to this treaty the Germans were only to hold Belfort, Nancy and Longwy as hostages until the fulfilment of its conditions. This treaty was speedily ratified by the governments of France and Germany; whereupon the greater part of the German Army of Occupation evacuated France, and the French prisoners in Germany were returned to France as speedily as the railroads could transport them.

So great was the recuperative power of France that she paid the war indemnity to Germany in two and a half years, one-half a year earlier than the required time; and the German Army of Occupation evacuated France gradually as the successive installments of the indemnity were paid.

MODIFICATION OF THE TREATY OF PARIS.

In November, 1870, while the Franco-German War was desolating Northern France, Europe was threatened with a far more terrible war by the action of Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, who took advantage of the situation to issue a circular to the other Great Powers demanding a modification of the Treaty of Paris in 1856, which ended the Crimean War. As France was so weakened by her reverses in her struggle with Germany, she was unable to support England in upholding the Treaty of Paris. Russia promptly profited by the circumstances to demand a modification of those articles of the treaty which prevented her from fortifying her ports or maintaining a fleet on the Black Sea.

Prince Gortschakoff's circular aroused intense exasperation and a war feeling in London, Vienna, Florence and Constantinople; and the governments of Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, Italy and Turkey were acting in perfect accord in resistance to the demands of Russia. Another war seemed imminent on the Eastern question, but the controversy was adjusted by a conference of the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers in London early in 1871. This London conference ended in a treaty, signed February 13, 1871, abrogating those articles of the Treaty of Paris in 1856 concerning the navigation of the Black Sea and Russia's right to fortify her ports; thus depriving Turkey of the protection afforded her since the close of the Crimean War.

ANNEXATION OF ROME TO ITALY.

When the Second French Empire had received its death-blow by the catastrophe of Sedan, at the beginning of September, 1870, the King of Italy felt himself freed from all obligations entered into with Napoleon III. At the same time there was much political agitation in Italy, and fears of a republican rising were entertained by the Italian government. When intelligence of the Paris Revolution of September 4, 1870, and the proclamation of the Third French Republic, had reached Florence, King Victor Em-

manuel and his Cabinet resolved upon the military occupation of Rome, and the annexation of the papal territory to the Kingdom of Italy. The King of Italy was compelled to take this step by the ardent wishes of his subjects, and any refusal or delay on his part to comply with their wishes would have cost him his crown. The people of the Pontifical States also petitioned the King of Italy to occupy Rome.

On the 12th of September, 1870, an Italian army of four thousand men under General Cadorna marched into the papal territory. General Cadorna issued a proclamation to the Roman people, assuring them that he did not bring war to them, but peace and order, and that the independence of the Holy See would not be molested. There was great enthusiasm among the Italian troops and people; and, as the troops advanced toward Rome, the people everywhere fraternized with them and received them with acclamations. The ultimatum of the Italian government stripped the Pope of his temporal power, but permitted him to remain in Rome as the Head of the Roman Catholic Church, and left him in possession of the Vatican and of the quarter called the Leonine City. King Victor Emmanuel issued a proclamation to the Romans, declaring that peace, order and self-government, and not war, were brought by the Italians. The Pope protested to the foreign ambassadors in Rome against the Italian occupation of the papal dominions; but, anxious to avoid bloodshed, he also ordered a cessation of all resistance on the part of the papal troops.

The siege of Rome by the Italian army under General Cadorna commenced on the 19th of September, 1870; and on the following day the papal troops, nine thousand three hundred in number, surrendered, and the triumphant Italians entered the city and were welcomed by the Romans as liberators. A plebiscite was taken in Rome a few days afterward, resulting in a unanimous vote in favor of the annexation of the Eternal City to the Kingdom of Italy. All political prisoners in the papal territories were immedi-

ately set free, and a provisional government was organized by General Cadorna. The King of Italy visited Rome in the early part of December, 1870.

On the 3d of July, 1871, King Victor Emmanuel and his Ministers, and the foreign embassies to the Italian government, removed from Florence to Rome, which then became the capital of a united Italy. Thus was accomplished the result for which Mazzini, Garibaldi and the party of Young Italy had labored for forty years.

Italy's progress since 1870 has been marked. She has fairly entered upon her great career of prosperity as a unified nation, and has already experienced the good effects of personal liberty and constitutional government. Her resources are being rapidly developed, and she has assumed her true position as the Sixth Great Power of Europe. On December 26, 1870, the tunnel through Mont Cenis was completed, thus piercing the great barrier of the Alps and giving Italy direct railway communication with France and the rest of Europe.

THE FRENCH CIVIL WAR OF 1871.

No sooner was a preliminary treaty of peace between France and Germany agreed to than France began to be distracted by a fierce and bloody civil war, caused by a rebellion of the Red Republicans and Communists of Paris. For some time the Red Republicans had been quite active, and engaged in revolutionary schemes. Fearing a formidable revolutionary rising, President Thiers and the National Assembly established themselves at Versailles. On the 6th of March, 1871, the revolutionists intrenched themselves in the Montmartre district with a battery of guns; and the Thiers government brought up troops of the line to resist any attack which the insurgents might make on the capital. The National Guards resisted the action for their disbandment, piled their arms on the Boulevards, and collected in groups with discontented and angry looks.

On the 17th of March the Versailles government sent a detachment of troops and gens d'armes to occupy the positions of the

mob, which had been rioting for several days at Montmartre. A considerable number of cannon were removed, and the gens d'armes took four hundred prisoners. The next morning, March 18, 1871, the National Guards of Belleville and Montmartre, with many unarmed soldiers of the line, arrived on the scene and released the prisoners. A severe conflict took place in the Rue Royale. Some artillerymen and cuirassiers were surrounded by a frantic mob, who accosted them with shouts of "Go and fight the Prussians." General Faron's troops, remaining faithful to the government, cut their way through the mob by which they were surrounded, and escaped, after capturing the insurgent barricades at the point of the bayonet. Generals Lecompte and Thomas were abandoned on the heights of Montmartre, and were shot in the Rue de Rosiere by their troops, who joined the insurgents.

The Central Committee of the National Guard placarded two proclamations defending their course, and issued orders for the election of a Communal Council for Paris. The regular soldiers in Paris fraternized with the insurgents, who now virtually ruled the city; and mob law was completely triumphant. The bourgeoisie, or middle class, displayed perfect apathy; and no resistance was made to the insurgents. By the 20th of March, 1871, the insurgents held possession of the Hotel de Ville, the Palais de Justice, the Tuileries and the Place Vendôme. Barricades were erected in some quarters; while Forts d'Issy, Vanvres and Montrouge were seized and garrisoned by the insurgents, and measures were taken to insure the defense of Paris against any assault from the government forces. On the morning of the 21st, March, 1871, the insurgents at Montmartre and Belleville saluted each other with rounds of artillery; and fresh barricades were erected in the vicinity of Batignolles, in the Rue d'Amsterdam, in the Avenue Clichy, and near the Great Northern Railway Station.

The greatest excitement prevailed at Versailles in consequence of the revolutionary

movement in Paris, and the National Assembly soon rallied a large army under General Vinoy to its support. On the meeting of the Assembly on the 21st of March all the deputies of the Mountain were absent. Measures were taken by the Thiers government for the suppression of the rebellion, and Versailles resembled a camp. Contrary to the expectations of the Paris Reds, no successful rising of their partisans in the other large cities of France took place; but the departments rallied to the support of the Versailles government.

The Communal elections in Paris took place on the 26th of March, and resulted in an overwhelming majority for the revolutionists. The Commune was soon organized, holding its first sitting on the 29th of March. A Reign of Terror was now inaugurated in Paris, and the outrages of 1793 were repeated. The cry of the Socialists and Red Republicans was: "Death to the priests!" "Death to the rich!" "Death to the property-owners!" Aristocrats and wealthy persons were in constant danger of being dragged to the guillotine, and more than one hundred thousand of the more respectable Parisians fled in consternation from the city. Priests were arrested and thrown into prison, churches were sacked, and religious service was suspended. Journals which supported the Versailles government were suppressed, and several journalists were sentenced to death. The insurgents boldly avowed their determination to march to Versailles, disperse the National Assembly, overthrow the Thiers government, and establish the "Universal Republic."

The government and the National Assembly had already collected a considerable army; but, instead of adopting prompt measures for the suppression of the insurrection, President Thiers lost much precious time by temporizing with the Paris insurgents with the view of bringing about peace without bloodshed. On the contrary, energy and resolution, but also great inefficiency, were displayed by the Paris Commune.

At the close of March, 1871, the military

forces of both parties were in motion; and on the 2d of April a spirited action, favorable to the government forces, occurred at Courbevoie. The defeated insurgents fled to the bridge of Neuilly, where they were again defeated. More than two hundred insurgents were killed, and many were wounded. The insurgents who were made prisoners by the government troops were immediately shot.

On the 3d of April one hundred thousand Communists under General Bergerot and Gustave Flourens issued from Paris at the Neuilly gate, and marched against Versailles. They were soon met by the Assemblyists under General Vinoy, and a furious battle ensued, which resulted in great destruction of life. Contrary to expectations of the insurgents, the garrison in Fort Valerien did not fraternize with them, but, remaining faithful to the Versailles government, suddenly opened a heavy fire upon them, producing the greatest consternation in their ranks. General Bergerot had just got out of his carriage when the vehicle was smashed to pieces by a bomb-shell. The wildest confusion ensued, and the main body of the Communist army retreated back to Paris, but General Bergerot and thirty-five thousand men were cut off and defeated in an attempt to pass Fort Valerien. Among the killed on the side of the insurgents was the violent political agitator, Gustave Flourens. The government forces were completely victorious.

A night attack by the insurgents upon the bridge of Sevres was repulsed by a detachment of the Versailles army on the 5th of April. On the 6th the insurgent garrisons in Forts d' Issy and Vanvres kept up a resolute fire on the government troops at Châtillon. On the 7th the insurgents were dislodged from the bridge of Sevres, and a fierce cannonade was kept up between Châtillon and Forts d' Issy and Vanvres.

The burial of the insurgent dead in Paris on the 6th of April was an extraordinary scene. The most intense grief and indignation were manifested by the Parisians. Hundreds of women were marching along

the Boulevards; and the bodies of the slain were interred in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, amid the shrieks of women and the cries of the men for vengeance on "The assassins of Versailles." Père la Chaise was thronged with people, who shouted: "Vive la Republique!" "Vive la Commune!"

On the 7th of April severe fighting occurred at Porte de Neuilly. The Communists at Courbevoie were dislodged by the guns of Fort Valerien; but they rallied up the Avenue de Neuilly, and opened a severe fire on the Versailles troops who appeared on the heights. The Communists were forced to retire behind the bridge of Neuilly, which they barricaded; but the pursuing Versailles shelled and demolished their barricades. In attempting to hold the bridge the insurgent National Guards suffered severely, and, being finally compelled to retire, were closely pursued by the government troops; but the insurgent guns swept the Avenue de Neuilly and checked the pursuit. After vainly endeavoring, under protection of their artillery, to throw up barricades across the avenue, the insurgents were entirely driven out of Neuilly, and found themselves obliged to take refuge behind the ramparts.

On the 8th of April there were spirited engagements at various points. Fort Valerien and the advanced government batteries fiercely bombarded Porte Maillot, many of their shells falling in the Champs Elysées. Marshal MacMahon was now invested with the chief command of the government forces. The Paris Commune was daily growing more desperate, and the most shameful outrages and revolutionary excesses were perpetrated. Additional numbers of priests and nuns were thrown into prison; and at length a demand was made on the Church for one million francs, the insurgents threatening to kill the Archbishop of Paris if the sum was not paid. The archbishop suffered the most shameful treatment from a band of infuriated Reds.

There was now severe fighting under the very walls of Paris; and shells were constantly falling in the Champs Elysées. The Arc de Triomphe was repeatedly struck and

much damaged. The fighting around Paris was very severe on the 15th and 16th of April. Many more of the inhabitants left the city. The insurgents erected barricades in the Place Vendôme, in the Rue Castiglione, in the vicinity of the Tuileries, at Montmartre and at Belleville, in anticipation of an attack from the government army. The Commune continued the arrests of priests, and scarcely a church in Paris now remained open.

The government troops attacked the insurgents at Vanvres on the 15th of April, and a bloody battle ensued. The Communists, completely taken by surprise, were driven back; but they soon rallied, and, after a desperate fight, compelled the Assemblyists to retreat, and regained their lost ground. During the day the conflict was several times renewed, but in the end the insurgents were left masters of their position, and the Versailles suffered severely from the deadly fire from the insurgent garrison in Fort Vanvres. On the 17th the insurgents were again victorious, in a furious engagement at Neuilly, in which each side lost about twenty-five hundred men.

On the 18th of April the insurgents were badly defeated at Asnieres. Their large defensive works were fiercely assailed by the government troops. The Communists fled across the Seine, before the heavy cross-fire from the attacking government columns. After being reinforced, the insurgents rallied and renewed the battle; but they were again defeated with heavy loss, being a second time driven across the Seine by the Versailles troops.

The insurgents continued the work of fortifying Paris, and the most desperate resources were being rendered available for the defense of the city against the government forces. In various quarters barricades were erected, surrounded by broad, deep trenches, beyond which mines of powder were laid. These measures of the Communists for defense greatly terrified the people of Paris. At the Beaujeu Hospital crowds of women with streaming hair were uttering loud shrieks, and demanding their

husbands, brothers and children. On the 23d of April the government batteries opened a furious cannonade upon Forts d'Issy and Vanvres and the ramparts at Pont du Jour.

The bombardment of Paris on Sunday night, April 30, 1871, was fearful and apparently utterly reckless as to the amount of damage it inflicted on the city. The Parisians were greatly excited, and large crowds were assembled on the street corners discussing the alarming condition of affairs. Large bodies of Versailles troops were moved toward Paris to reinforce the government army of investment. The insurgents at Neuilly kept up the indignation of the people of Paris by throwing petroleum shells into the city, the Parisians being led to believe that they came from the lines of the Versailles army.

On the 1st of May the Clamart railway station was captured by the Assemblyists at the point of the bayonet, and about three hundred insurgents were killed in the action. On the 6th of May the insurgents were repulsed with heavy loss in a sortie from Fort d'Issy. The government army continued its approaches to the Bois de Boulogne, and on the 7th of May the Versailles batteries reopened fire on Pont du Jour and other points.

After many stubborn conflicts and furious assaults, Fort d'Issy was finally captured and occupied by the government forces, on the 8th of May. On the following day, May 9, 1871, the investment of Paris from Gennevilliers to Fort d'Issy by the government forces was complete; and preparations were being made for a grand assault on the city. On the 13th of May thirty thousand Versaillesists were in the Bois de Boulogne, sheltered by the trenches of the besieging army. A heavy column of Communist troops which attempted a sortie from Port Dauphine was blown to atoms by the bursting of twenty shells which came from the lines of the Versailles army.

After many desperate struggles and fierce assaults and bombardments, Fort Vanvres fell into the possession of the government

troops, on the 14th of May; the Communist garrison having fled, by a subterranean passage, to Fort Montrouge. The government troops found sixty cannon and eighteen mortars in the fort. The approaches to the ramparts and fortifications of Paris were now actively pushed forward, under cover of a heavy cannonade; and preparations were being made by Marshal MacMahon for a grand attack on the walls, or enceinte, of Paris.

By the 15th of May the government troops were under the walls of Paris, exchanging shots with the insurgents, who lined the ramparts from Porte de la Meute to Porte d'Issy. Paris was now completely invested and declared in a state of siege. The Parisians were expelled from the trenches between Forts d'Issy and Vanvres. Breaches were made in the enceinte of Paris by the furious cannonade from the government guns, and the Anteuil gate was now completely destroyed. The western and south-western arrondissements of Paris were now uninhabitable, on account of the great destruction of life and property in those portions of the city. On the night of the 15th of May the Communists were repulsed with heavy loss in a sortie upon the government troops in the Bois de Boulogne, and the Versaillesists continued to fire around the ramparts from Pont du Jour to Porte Maillot.

At six o'clock in the evening of the 16th of May, 1871, the great Column in the Place Vendôme, which had been erected there by Napoleon I. to commemorate his great victory at Austerlitz, was levelled with the ground by the order of the Paris Commune. The Column fell at full length in the Rue de la Paix, amid the shouts of "Vive la République!" "Vive la Commune!" from the multitude which had assembled in the Rue de la Paix and the Rue Castiglione to witness the destruction of this monument of imperial glory.

On Sunday night, May 21, 1871, the government troops effected an entrance into Paris through the Bois de Boulogne, when the most terrific fighting of the whole civil war commenced; and for a week Paris was



PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK.



ENTRY INTO BERLIN.

one vast battle-field. On the 22d, May, 1871, the government troops under Marshal MacMahon continued pouring into the city through the Bois de Boulogne; and very soon three of the principal avenues leading to the Champs Elysées were in possession of the government forces. The Communists were now thrown into the greatest confusion. A bloody battle occurred on the same day in the Rue St. Honore, where the insurgent barricades were captured and recaptured six times. The government troops charged down the street with fury, and were fired upon from the windows of the Conciergeries. Many of the Communist barricades were captured, and the Champs Elysées were swept by the heavy fire from the Versailles artillery which were planted near the Arc de Triomphe. Many leaders of the Commune were captured, and some massacres were perpetrated. The headquarters of Marshal MacMahon were established in the new Opera House. The heaviest fighting occurred in the Rue Royale, where the slaughter was terrific. At the Tuileries ten thousand insurgents were made prisoners by the government troops under General Clinchamp.

At daybreak, May 23d, a terrible fire of musketry and cannon commenced in the Montmartre district; and at one o'clock in the afternoon Montmartre was captured by the government forces under Generals Clinchamp and L'Admirault. Heavy fighting occurred at the barricades in the Place de la Concorde and the Place de Clichy. The government troops under General Cissey captured the barricades in the Chaussu du Marne, in the southern part of Paris. Barricades were hastily thrown up, and terrible conflicts occurred in other parts of the city. Many of the leaders of the Commune were captured, and were shot on the spot; and during the battles in various quarters of the city no quarter was shown by the government forces. At the close of the day the government troops occupied the Place de Clichy, the Palais de l'Industrie, the Chamber of the Corps Legislatif, the Hotel des Invalides, St. Quen, the Tuileries, the Ho-

tel de Ville and the Place Vendôme. The Place de la Concorde was also abandoned by the insurgents. On the evening of this day Monseigneur Darboy, Archbishop of Paris, and sixty-nine priests, who had been seized and held as hostages, were murdered by the infuriated Communists.

On the 24th, May, 1871, the Communist insurgents, in the madness of desperation and despair, perpetrated acts of vandalism almost unparalleled in the history of the world. With the intention of destroying the city they could no longer rule, the insurgents, from their barricaded positions in various portions of Paris, threw petroleum shells over the city; and fires arose in many quarters. A number of women who were detected in the act of setting fire to buildings were shot on the spot by the exasperated government troops. The most famous buildings set on fire were the palace of the Tuileries, the Hotel of the Legion of Honor, the Hotel de Ville and the Louvre. The fighting during the day was of the most desperate character. The streets were strewn with dead bodies, and no quarter was shown by either party. The fighting resulted in immense advantages to the Versailles, the insurgents being driven from many of their positions.

The fighting was continued during the 25th with additional advantages to the government army. Driven from Paris proper, the insurgents, mad with rage and fury, took refuge in Belleville, the very center of the revolutionary movement, and the birth-place of the great Communist rebellion. From Belleville the Communists continued to throw petroleum shells all over Paris, thus kindling additional fires in the city, and destroying many public and private buildings. The whole city was wrapt in clouds of smoke, and the fires could be seen for many miles around. A great many buildings were destroyed by the explosion of mines. The Luxembourg, the Palais de la Quai d'Orsay and the Palais Royal were now also burning.

On the 26th a furious battle was in progress in Pantin. The capture of six thousand in-

surgeons in the Quartier Moufflard ended the rebellion in that quarter. The government troops were severely harassed by the fire of musketry from the windows of houses. Many Communists who attempted to escape toward Pantin were hotly pursued, and were slaughtered without mercy by the exasperated Versaillists. The insurgent position at Belleville was vigorously cannonaded by the government army. The insurgents were driven into the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, where they were surrounded by the government forces. The Rue Royale was destroyed by mines, and the most terrible fires were still raging in Paris. Women who were detected in pouring petroleum into cellars were shot by the enraged Versaillists. Many of the insurgent leaders—among whom were Valles, Amoureux, Brunel, Rigault, Bousquet and General Dombrowski—were captured and shot.

On the 27th occurred the most terrific fighting of the civil war. Sanguinary battles were fought at Belleville, Menilmontant and in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise. No quarter was given to man, woman or child. After a day of the most frightful carnage, the government forces captured the insurgent positions at Belleville and Père la Chaise, late in the night. The destructive fires were still raging in Paris; but soon after the arrival of the London Fire Brigade the flames were got under control, and in a few days they were entirely extinguished.

On Sunday morning, May 28, 1871, the last band of insurgents surrendered unconditionally; the whole city was in the undisputed possession of the government forces; the firing ceased; and ten thousand prisoners were passing through the Rue Lafayette. The great Rebellion of Paris in 1871 had now ended. One-third of Paris was in ashes, and fifty thousand dead bodies were lying in the streets and cellars of the city. Among the slain were many women and boys who had fought in the ranks of the insurgents. The Tuileries, the Louvre, the Hotel of the Legion of Honor, the Luxembourg, the Palais Royal, the Hotel de Ville and the Palais de la Quai d' Orsay were

wholly or partially destroyed. This brief but sanguinary rebellion, during the two months of its existence, cost the lives of sixty thousand Frenchmen. Many valuable works of art were sacrificed to the madness of the infuriated Communists. The outrages of the Communists equaled those of the Jacobins of 1793; and the names of Cluseret, Bergerot, Dombrowski, Delescluse, Assy, Piat and Rochefort deserve the same execration as those of Robespierre, Danton, Marat, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot and Fouquier-Tinville.

Upon the suppression of the rebellion, President Thiers appointed General Vinoy military governor of Paris, and military law was established in the city. A heavy doom was inflicted on the vanquished rebels, of whom about forty thousand were held as prisoners. Drumhead court-martial was established; from fifty to one hundred insurgents were shot at a time; and no person was permitted to leave Paris without a pass signed by Marshal MacMahon. The places of execution were the Champ de Mars, the Park de Monceaux and the Hotel de Ville. Altogether eighteen thousand of the Communist rebels were shot after they had surrendered. In a few days after the suppression of the insurrection, all restrictions concerning communication with Paris were removed, and entrance and exit were free to all. The barricades were soon removed, and perfect order again prevailed.

The supplementary elections in France for deputies to the National Assembly, at the beginning of July, 1871, resulted in an overwhelming majority for the Moderate Republicans. Out of one hundred and five deputies chosen, there were eighty-six Moderate Republicans, thirteen Radicals, three Orleanists, two Legitimists and one Bonapartist.

THE SPANISH REPUBLIC, 1873-1875.

From the moment of his accession to the throne of Spain, King Amadeus found his situation to be an unenviable one. The young sovereign was really desirous of the welfare and prosperity of his subjects, but he lacked the abilities necessary for the difficult

post of a constitutional monarch. The Spanish nation was divided into numerous parties; the rebellion against Spanish power in the island of Cuba still continued; and the young king found opposition on almost every hand. The most important parties opposed to King Amadeus were the Carlists, or adherents of Don Carlos; the Alfonsists, or partisans of Prince Alfonso, the son of ex-Queen Isabella II.; the Republicans, and the Radicals. The Carlists worked actively for the elevation of Don Carlos to the throne of Spain; and the Republicans, headed by Señor Castelar and Señor Figueras, did not cease their dreams for the establishment of a Spanish Republic. The throne of Amadeus was only upheld by the non-agreement of the various opposition parties—the Carlists, the Alfonsists, the Republicans, the Radicals and others.

From the moment of the accession of King Amadeus, in January, 1871, the Carlists and the Republicans plotted against his government; and several attempts were made to assassinate the young monarch. In June, 1872, a formidable insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the North of Spain; but, after some spirited actions, in which the Carlists were defeated by the government troops, the rebellion was suppressed. Armed bands of Carlists and Republicans roamed over the northern provinces of Spain, tearing up railways and cutting telegraph wires. A Republican revolt broke out in the town of Ferrol, in October, 1872; but the insurgents dispersed on the approach of government troops. The Cuban rebellion still continued without any decisive result.

In the beginning of February, 1873, King Amadeus embraced the resolution of resigning his troublesome throne. The Ministry sought to dissuade the king from his purpose, but Amadeus persisted in his determination to abdicate the throne. When it became known that King Amadeus would certainly resign his crown, groups of people assembled in Madrid, and there were some attempts to create a disturbance; but these demonstrations were promptly suppressed, and the crowds were dispersed without any

conflicts. The Congress, or lower branch of the Cortes, adopted a proposition that the President of that branch and fifty deputies should constitute a Permanent Committee. The Cortes assembled at a late hour on February 11th, 1873, and the formal message of the king's abdication was read in each chamber separately; but upon the conclusion of the reading the Senate and the Congress met together in one chamber, and constituted themselves the Sovereign Cortes of Spain. Señor Rivero, the President of the Congress, being called to the chair, declared himself ready to answer for the preservation of order, and for the execution of the decrees of the supreme power. The abdication of King Amadeus was unanimously accepted by the Cortes, which then, by a vote of two hundred and fifty-nine in the affirmative and thirty-two in the negative, declared Spain a Republic. That night the streets of the Spanish capital were filled with an excited people. The Senate appointed a Permanent Committee of Thirty. Señor Melcampo and Marshal Serrano offered their support to Prime Minister Zorilla in maintaining order.

The Ministry of Señor Zorilla now terminated; and on the following day, February 12, 1873, the Cortes elected a new Ministry, or provisional government, of which Estanislao Figueras, the ardent Republican, was chosen President. After the members of the new government had taken their seats upon the Ministerial benches in the Cortes, President Figueras addressed the Cortes, expressing the hope that the Spanish Republic would be established forever. On the following day, February 13, 1873, the two Houses of the Cortes met in joint session, constituted themselves the *National Assembly* of Spain, and proceeded to effect a permanent organization by electing Señor E. Martos President of the Assembly. The provisional government ordered the suppression of the Royal Guard. Ex-King Amadeus had already left Madrid for Lisbon, in Portugal, whence he was to be conveyed to Italy by an Italian squadron. The establishment of the Spanish Republic was cel-

celebrated in Madrid, on the night of the 14th, February, 1873, by a general illumination, on which occasion the streets of the Spanish capital were crowded with people, but there was no disorder.

After several months' deliberation, the National Assembly of Spain, on the 22d of March, 1873, passed, by a unanimous vote, a bill providing for the immediate abolition of slavery in Porto Rico, one of the largest of the Spanish West-India Islands, and accorded to the emancipated slaves the full privileges of Spanish citizenship. After passing this important measure, the National Assembly dissolved itself by a unanimous vote, on which occasion the greatest excitement prevailed in the Assembly Chamber and in the streets of the capital. On that and the following day, March 22 and 23, 1873, there were several unsuccessful revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid.

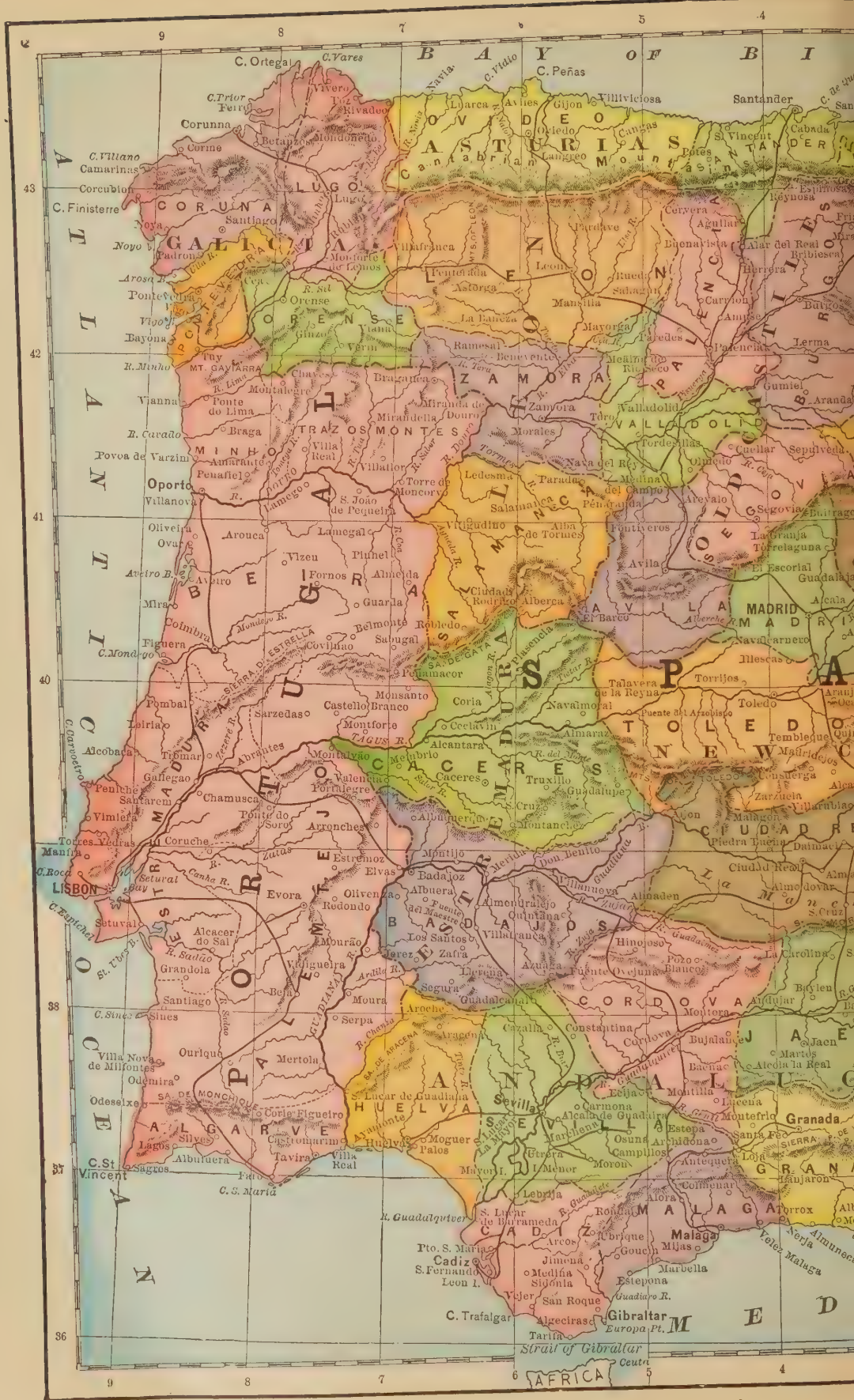
In the meantime a formidable insurrection of the Carlists had broken out in the North of Spain. The Carlists, instead of concentrating their forces, roamed over the Basque Provinces, Navarre and Catalonia in small bands, and engaged in tearing up railways, burning railway stations and bridges, cutting telegraph wires, and in every way interrupting communication in the northern provinces of Spain. Numerous small engagements were fought with various success between the Republican forces, headed by Generals Gonzales, Nouvillas, Cabrinity and others; and the Carlist bands, led by the Curé of Santa Cruz and by Generals Seballs, Dorregaray and Tristany, and Don Alfonso, the brother of Don Carlos. At the close of May, 1873, General Nouvillas, at the head of twelve thousand men, was holding the mountain passes of Biscay and driving the Carlists in that province toward the coast.

During the latter part of April, 1873, Madrid was greatly excited. A rising of the monarchists in that city took place on the 23d of April, beginning with the revolt of several battalions of volunteers, who fired on General Contreras. The agitation increased as night approached, and shots were

fired in other portions of the city. During this time the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly held a session to consider the gravity of the situation and to deliberate upon measures for the public safety. While the committee was in session some of the rebellious volunteers entered the hall, and the committee sought safety in flight. The ultras demanded the establishment of the Commune in Madrid, and engaged in hunting down the members of the Permanent Committee, several of whom were arrested and imprisoned by the infuriated insurgents; and the greatest excitement prevailed. Early in May there was a renewal of revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid. The city was placarded with numerous proclamations, urging the people to demand the immediate proclamation of the Federal Republic, the abolition of capital punishment, the abolition of the State Council, and the separation of Church and State; and large Federalist meetings were held on the 5th of May, 1873.

In the meantime elections for a Constituent Cortes had been ordered. The elections took place on Saturday and Sunday, May 10 and 11, 1873, and resulted in the choice of three hundred and ten Ministerial Federal Republicans, thirty Extreme Radicals, eight Internationalists, ten Independent Republicans and thirty Monarchists. The total number of votes cast throughout Spain was one million two hundred thousand. The vote in the capital was light, owing to the apathy of all parties except the Federal Republican. The Constituent Cortes assembled on the 31st of May, 1873. The session was formally opened by Señor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, with a speech, in which he maintained the right of the Spanish people to choose their own form of government. The Cortes organized by electing Señor Orense, a Federal Republican, its President.

On the 8th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a vote of two hundred and ten yeas against two nays, proclaimed the establishment of the Federal Democratic Republic in Spain, and then adjourned until evening. The session





SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

Old Province boundaries shown
in strong color lines

Scale of Miles
0 5 10 30 60 70

Railways thus ———

Latitude West 2 from Greenwich

Longitude East from Greenwich 2

3

of the Cortes on the night of the 8th of June was a stormy one. Señor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, tendered his resignation; but, after great confusion and excitement, a Ministry proposed by Señor Pi y Margall was rejected, and the Cortes went into secret session. An excited crowd filled the streets in front of the palace, and within the Chamber the greatest agitation prevailed. Through the efforts of Castelar and Figueras, calm was finally restored in the Chamber, as well as among the populace outside. After successive fruitless attempts of Figueras, Castelar and Pi y Margall to form a new Ministry, Señor Figueras was finally prevailed upon by the Cortes to remain in power with his old Cabinet. After a vote of confidence in the Figueras Ministry, the Cortes adjourned. The proclamation of the Federal Democratic Republic was celebrated at Barcelona, on the night of the 8th of June, with illuminations and general rejoicings.

At a Cabinet council on the 11th of June, 1873, President Figueras and his Ministers tendered their resignations, in consequence of a disagreement with the Cortes on the currency. In consequence of this Ministerial crisis, fears were entertained of a serious outbreak in Madrid. The Cortes continued in secret session on the following day, and during their deliberations a party of armed volunteers surrounded the palace of the Cortes. A large body of armed police and troops were stationed at various points throughout the city, in anticipation of an outbreak. A majority of the Cortes finally chose Señor Pi y Margall to the Presidency of the Republic, and his Ministry was immediately appointed. The excitement which had prevailed in Madrid for several days greatly subsided, and the city appeared quite calm. Señor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Constituent Cortes.

Disturbances occurred at Barcelona on the 24th of June, 1873. There was firing all that night between the soldiers and the citizens. On the following day the troops were all removed from the city, and a cordon of police was established between them

and the city to prevent a further collision. On the 25th of June the populace in Malaga arose against the authorities and killed the Mayor of the city, but order was restored in the evening. The extreme Radicals arose in Seville and barricaded the streets, but the outbreak was soon suppressed.

On the 30th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a large majority, approved a bill granting extraordinary powers to the government to enable it to crush the Carlist insurrection. Serious apprehensions were entertained of an outbreak in Madrid against the government, and troops were placed at strategic points in the city. The Constituent Committee of the Cortes completed the draft of a Federal Republican Constitution for Spain. The Constitution provided for the division of European Spain into eleven States; and Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were to be constituted Territories of Spain. Madrid was to remain the capital. The government was to be divided into the Legislative, Executive and Judiciary Departments. The Cortes was to hold two sessions each year, and the members were to receive salaries. Senators were to be chosen by the States, and Deputies by universal suffrage. Deputies could not act as Ministers. A President was to be elected by universal suffrage for a single term of four years.

On the 12th of July, 1873, the Internationals arose against the authorities at Alcoy, in the province of Alicante, and assassinated the Mayor of the city, although he was a life-long Republican. His body was dragged through the streets by a mob which kept up a continuous yell. The Collector of Taxes was also assassinated, and his body was treated with the same indignities as that of the Mayor. Several factories were burned by the mob. On the 13th of July, General Velarde entered Alcoy with a strong column of government troops. The insurgents had already been reduced to submission by the Alicante militia, who took possession of the town; but the leaders of the revolt escaped.

In anticipation of the adoption, by the Cortes, of contemplated changes in the new

Federal Constitution, the provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia and Catalonia rose in rebellion against the government, and proclaimed their independence. Declarations of independence were issued at Seville, Cadiz and Barcelona.

The Communist insurgents at Cartagena, headed by General Contreras, made themselves masters of the whole city, except the arsenal. The crews of several Spanish men-of-war in the harbor of Cartagena having revolted, the Spanish government issued a proclamation declaring them pirates, and authorizing their capture and treatment as such, by any foreign power, on the high seas; and decrees were issued dismissing General Contreras from the public service, and removing the civil governors of the revolted provinces. The insurgents at Cartagena, after gaining control of the city, seized the Castillo de las Galeras, a strong fort on the west side of the harbor, less than a thousand yards from the entrance, which it commanded completely. This gave them control of the batteries on the shore, at the mouth of the harbor. They hoisted the red flag of the Commune over the fortifications, and summoned the squadron lying in the harbor to surrender. The crews being in sympathy with the insurgents, the vessels fell into their hands without opposition. The insurgents levied a heavy contribution upon the inhabitants of Cartagena. The Communists, or *Intransigentes*, at Cartagena established a provisional government for the canton of Murcia, at the head of which was General Contreras as President.

Contreras was in command of the insurgent fleet off Almeria. He demanded a heavy contribution from that city; and, as the city authorities refused to comply with his demand, he opened a heavy bombardment on the city. After two hours of heavy firing, the *Intransigentes* attempted to disembark, but were repulsed by the government forces and compelled to reëmbark. They afterward renewed their attack upon the city.

The numerous internal troubles of Spain caused the Cortes to demand the formation

of a vigorous Ministry under Señor Nicholas Salmeron, and accordingly Señor Pi y Margall and his Cabinet resigned. On the 20th of July, 1873, Señor Nicholas Salmeron was made President of the Spanish Republic, and an able Ministry was formed. While the debate on the Ministry was going on in the Cortes, great excitement was produced by the explosion of an Orsini bomb at the door. Señor Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Cortes on the 26th of August, and on taking the chair he made a speech exhorting the Republicans to be united.

The insurgents at Valencia refused to surrender to the government troops, who thereupon opened a heavy bombardment upon the city, on the night of the 30th of July. The city was cannonaded at regular intervals, musketry firing was frequent, and there was some desperate fighting. The government troops occupied the village of Mislata, but were dislodged by the insurgent artillery; and the village was alternately taken and retaken, and set on fire by shells from the garrison in Valencia. A serious conflict took place at the village of Masannasa, near Valencia, between the government troops and the insurgents, in which one hundred and fifty men were killed. Already two hundred shells had been thrown into Valencia, and the government troops had advanced six hundred yards.

On the 31st of July, 1873, the insurgents at Seville set fire to that city in four different places by means of petroleum. The insurrection at Seville was soon suppressed, and the city was occupied by the government troops. The fires which the insurgents had kindled were extinguished. The government troops captured twenty cannon at Seville.

Early in August the government troops defeated the insurgents in a sharp fight at Malaga, and drove them from the field. The town of Alhama, in the province of Alicante, proclaimed its independence; and a Junta was organized, whose first act was to levy a heavy contribution upon the citizens. The insurgents at Cadiz surrendered

to the government troops under General Pavia on the 5th of August.

On the 8th of August, 1873, the artillerymen belonging to the garrison of Barcelona mutinied against their officers, but were quickly disarmed and imprisoned by the cavalry under the command of the Captain-General of Barcelona. The mutineers were court-martialed; and twelve of the ring-leaders were sentenced to death, and thirty to transportation to the penal colonies of Spain.

Early in September, 1873, Socialistic troubles broke out in the province of Andalusia. In the vicinity of the town of Jímena the farm-laborers banded together for the purpose of demanding and endeavoring to enforce a division of property. They burned forty farm-houses belonging to those opposed to them, and committed other excesses. Some of the rioters were arrested.

The question of military executions engaged the attention of the Cortes. President Salmeron, who was opposed to capital punishment, tendered his resignation; and his Ministry retired on the 5th of September, 1873. On the 7th Señor Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Spanish Republic, and he entered on his duties with an able Ministry. The Cortes conferred on President Castelar dictatorial powers to enable him to crush the Carlist and Communist insurrections. Señor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Cortes, and several weeks later the Cortes adjourned.

On the 16th of September, 1873, there was a serious riot at Ecija, provoked by the Intransigentes and attended with considerable loss of life. The municipal elections in Malaga on the same day were attended with riot and bloodshed. The Intransigentes in Seville attacked a party of Republican recruits, but the latter resisted, and several were killed.

The insurgent men-of-war from Cartagena effected a landing at Augilas, and pillaged the town and suburbs. The insurgent fleet proceeded to Alicante, in the province of Alicante. When a demand for a contribution was rejected, a fierce bombardment was

opened on the city, on the 27th of September, 1873; and five hundred projectiles, some filled with petroleum, were thrown into the city, and did great damage; but the fleet was seriously disabled by a vigorous return fire from the forts, and after several days it withdrew from Alicante.

In the meantime the siege and bombardment of Cartagena by the government forces had progressed actively. A column of two thousand insurgents made a desperate sortie from the city on the 9th of October, but was repulsed with heavy loss. The Intransigente fleet was defeated by the national squadron under Admiral Lobos on the 11th of October, near Cartagena. On the 19th of October the insurgent squadron from Cartagena appeared before Valencia, but withdrew several days afterward with the plunder of ten Spanish merchant-ships. On the 23d of October the government fleet arrived off Cartagena, and was fired upon from the forts; but the insurgent vessels remained inside the harbor. The bombardment of the city continued incessantly. On the 26th of November the cathedral and the hospital were struck by the besiegers' artillery. On the 28th the Protestant church and the theater were destroyed, and two hundred persons were killed and wounded within the city. The insurgents raised the black flag upon the forts. The bombardment did great damage to the city, and four hundred houses were destroyed; but the forts and batteries remained almost intact. The bombardment produced distress among non-combatants. The insurgents strengthened their works and armament. The government forces at length occupied the San Antonio suburb, and, concentrating their fire upon the forts, suspended their bombardment of the town.

The Carlist rebellion in the North of Spain continued during the Administrations of Pi y Margall, Salmeron and Castelar. Don Carlos had entered Spain on the 16th of July, 1873, from Bayonne, in France, accompanied by several attendants, and was received by his adherents with indescribable enthusiasm. During the whole summer

and autumn of 1873 the Basque Provinces, Navarre and Catalonia were the theaters of numerous engagements between the Republican forces, commanded by Generals Nouvillas, Cabrinity, Moriones and others, and the Carlist bands under the leadership of the Curé of Santa Cruz and Generals Dorregaray, Seballs, Ollo and Tristany, and Don Alfonso. By the close of the autumn of 1873 there were forty thousand Carlists under arms in the North of Spain; and Don Carlos took up his winter-quarters at Durango, in the province of Biscay.

The Spanish Cortes reassembled on the 2d of January, 1874; and President Castelar read his message from the Ministerial bench. For a long time a disagreement had existed between Señor Castelar, President of the Republic, and Señor Salmeron, President of the Cortes; and on this occasion a sharp debate took place between these two Republican leaders and statesmen. On the 3d of January, 1874, the Cortes, on two votes, refused to sustain President Castelar; the majority against him being twenty. As soon as the result of the votes was announced, General Pavia, Captain-General of Madrid, who had surrounded the Chamber of the Cortes with soldiers, sent an officer into the Chamber with a letter to Salmeron, demanding the dissolution of the Cortes. Thereupon Señor Castelar resigned the Presidency of the Republic, and his Cabinet retired from office; and immediately some of General Pavia's soldiers entered the hall and expelled the Deputies. General Pavia then summoned the most eminent men of all parties to form a new government, excluding only Carlists and Intransigentes; but he refused personally to become a member of the government. Marshal Serrano was made President of the Republic, and an able Ministry was formed. Castelar, Salmeron and other Republican leaders protested with all their energy against the brutal Coup d'État of General Pavia.

On the 8th of January, 1874, a Communist insurrection broke out in Barcelona; and barricades were erected in the suburbs by the insurgents. Fort Montijoi, on the south

side of the city, opened fire on the city; and there was severe fighting in the suburbs. The insurrection continued until the 15th, when the insurgents surrendered, and the authority of the Spanish government was fully restored in the city.

Early in January, 1874, after General Pavia's Coup d'État, the besiegers of Cartagena redoubled their efforts to reduce the city; but the garrison stubbornly held out, and made several desperate sorties. On the 9th of January a column of the national army besieging Cartagena was repulsed in an assault upon Fort San Julian. A heavy fire was kept up on both sides. The besiegers finally compelled Atalaya Castle to surrender. During the siege and bombardment, powder magazines frequently exploded in the city, causing much destruction of life.

Cartagena surrendered to the government forces on the 14th of January, 1874. Upon the capitulation of the city, the members of the insurgent Junta and the liberated convicts went on board the frigate *Numancia*. The *Numancia*, in escaping, passed five Spanish men-of-war, and arrived safely at Mers-el-Kebir, on the coast of Algeria, with twenty-five hundred refugees on board, among whom were Generals Contreras and Galvez. One of the steamers which attempted to escape was captured with a large number of refugees. Another insurgent vessel with a large party of refugees succeeded in reaching the French shores, whither she was pursued by a French man-of-war. The members of the Cartagenian Junta surrendered the *Numancia* to the French authorities at Mers-el-Kebir. The *Numancia* was delivered by the French to a Spanish frigate. The insurgent chiefs—Contreras, Ferrez and Galvez—were sent to the capital of Algeria; and the Cartagenian refugees were interned in the forts and barracks of Oran and Mers-el-Kebir.

Winter did not suspend operations between the Carlist and Republican forces in the North of Spain, and the province of Biscay was the principal theater of war. During the month of February, 1874, there was

severe fighting at Bilbao, Tolosa and Somorrostro between the opposing forces, with various success. After the fall of Cartagena and the suppression of the Intransigente insurrection, President Serrano assumed the chief command of the government forces operating against the Carlists; and, with the aid of his chief subordinates, Generals Loma and Manuel de la Concha, he prepared for a vigorous and decisive campaign.

By the middle of March, 1874, a Republican army of thirty-four thousand men, under the chief command of President Serrano himself, stood face to face with a Carlist force of thirty-five thousand men; while General Loma, with eight thousand Republican troops, was moving on the Carlist rear. In the meantime the Carlists had laid siege to Bilbao, which they bombarded incessantly, throwing two hundred shells into the city daily. The Carlists captured an outlying fort with forty prisoners, and they threw incendiary shells into Bilbao with terrible effect. An engagement before the city resulted in the occupation of the Albia suburb by the besiegers. A desperate engagement was fought before Bilbao on the 25th of March, lasting all day; and in the evening the Republicans encamped on the positions which they had captured from the Carlists. The fighting before Bilbao was renewed on the 26th, continuing all day, and closing at night with decided advantages for the Republican forces. Serrano's troops advanced and drove back the Carlist lines, capturing, at the point of the bayonet, several villages and several positions which were occupied by the insurgents the day previous. Serrano's losses during these two days were five hundred and fifty men, and Generals Loma and Primo de Rivera were severely wounded. Serrano made a successful attack on Pedro Abanto, and drove the Carlists beyond Santa Guliana. The fighting at Bilbao was renewed on the 28th of March, lasting all day; and the Republicans were repulsed in their attacks on the Carlist lines, losing four thousand men, while the Carlists lost only one thousand. A heavy fire was kept up on the Carlist positions before Bilbao by the

Republican artillery. Active operations before Bilbao were resumed on the 3d of April, 1874, with the bombardment of Abanto by the Republican forces. Serrano's army kept up a furious cannonade on the Carlist positions before Bilbao. On the 29th of April fighting was resumed before Bilbao, and continued the next two days; and on the 1st of May the Carlists were defeated and routed, and the Republican forces under President Serrano and General Manuel de la Concha triumphantly entered Bilbao. During the month of May there were several skirmishes around Bilbao, and at the close of the month the Carlists invested Hernani.

On the 25th of June, 1874, General Manuel de la Concha, in the midst of a terrible storm, surprised the Carlist positions near Estella. The engagement lasted an hour, and the Carlist losses were heavy. In a bayonet charge on the Carlist intrenchments at Mura, Marshal Concha, who was over eighty years of age, having placed himself at the head of the Republican troops, was instantly killed. The Republican army then fell back to Lerin, eight miles from Estella. The Republican loss was fifteen hundred men. The command of the Republican army was then given to General Zabala, Spanish Minister of War. Marshal Concha's death produced a profound sensation throughout Spain, and his remains were honored with magnificent funeral obsequies.

On the 13th of July, 1874, Don Alfonso, with eight thousand Carlists, made an attack upon the Republicans at Cuenca; and, after a most desperate struggle, during which the Republicans repulsed four fierce assaults made upon them by the Carlists, the Carlists finally obtained possession of the Citadel, compelling the Republicans to surrender. The victors practiced the greatest cruelties upon the vanquished, many of whom were shot after they had surrendered.

In August, 1874, the Spanish Republic was formally recognized by England, France, Germany, Italy, Austria, Holland and Sweden; but Russia held aloof, fearing that recognition would strengthen the cause of

republicanism in Europe, and alleging that Marshal Serrano's government, which had its origin in a Coup d'État, had no legal existence.

The war between the Republicans and the Carlists continued with various success. In the latter part of August, 1874, the Carlists were repulsed in repeated attacks on Puigcerda. Early in November, 1874, the Carlists laid siege to Irun, which they furiously bombarded for nearly a week; but they were eventually compelled to raise the siege and to retreat into Navarre.

On the 31st of December, 1874, Prince Alfonso, son of ex-Queen Isabella II., was proclaimed King of Spain by the Republican armies. Marshal Serrano acquiesced. The Minister of the Interior immediately sent dispatches to the governors of the provinces, announcing that ALFONSO XII. had been proclaimed king by the nation, the army and the Ministry. On the 9th of January, 1875, King Alfonso arrived at Barcelona from France, and was received with great demonstrations of enthusiasm. On the 14th, January, 1875, he arrived in Madrid and met with a grand reception; and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

After taking possession of the throne of Spain, King Alfonso issued a proclamation calling upon the Carlists to lay down their arms. But they refused, and preparations were made to subdue them. In February, 1875, Estella was captured by the Alfonsists; and the Carlists were repulsed in an attack upon Bilbao. In March, General Cabrera deserted the cause of Don Carlos, and issued a proclamation recognizing Alfonso as King of Spain and calling upon the Carlists to submit. He also concluded a convention with the Alfonsists. In May, Generals Elio and Aguirre also deserted Don Carlos; and Aguirre issued an address to the Carlists, advising them to submit to King Alfonso.

In July, 1875, the Carlists were defeated by the Alfonsists under Generals Jovellar and Martinez Campos; but the Alfonsist General Loma was unsuccessful. Dorre-

garay fled across the Pyrenees into France, pursued by the Alfonsists. In August the Alfonsists laid siege to the strong fortress of Seo de Urgel. On the 17th a body of six thousand Carlists made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve the beleaguered fortress; and on the 27th, August, 1875, Seo de Urgel surrendered to the Alfonsists. The Carlists were also defeated at other points about this time.

In September, 1875, the Carlists in the provinces of Catalonia, Navarre and Biscay gave in their submission to the government of King Alfonso, and applied for amnesty. The Carlists became more and more distracted by dissensions in their own ranks; and Don Carlos quarrelled with Generals Dorregaray and Sebals and others, and ordered them to be shot. The Carlist rebellion finally ended in March, 1876.

THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

The first Diet, or Parliament, of the new German Empire assembled at Berlin, the new capital of Germany, March 21, 1871; and after a month's deliberation it succeeded in framing a new imperial constitution, resembling the constitution of the North German Confederation. The new German Empire consists of twenty-five states, including the three free cities of Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck. Each German state has its own local government for the management of its domestic concerns, and is allowed to send and receive envoys and ambassadors; but the general interests of the Empire are under the exclusive control of the imperial government. The imperial Diet, or Parliament, called the *Reichstag*, and elected by the German people, is vested with the legislative power of the Empire. The Emperor is vested with the executive power of the Empire, and is empowered to form alliances, to conclude treaties, to declare war and to conclude peace. The Imperial Chancellor is appointed by the Emperor, and is his representative in the Reichstag. The Imperial Chancellor is also president of the *Bundesrath*, or Federal Council, composed of representatives of the German states.

He directs the affairs of the Empire, and is also Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Though the German states reserved important privileges in establishing the Empire, the general tendency seems to be to weaken those privileges and to strengthen the power of the imperial government.

The task of organizing the German Empire was completed without interruption or



STATUE OF GERMANIA ON THE NIEDERWALD.

difficulty during the year 1871. The large war-indemnity exacted from France enabled the imperial government to meet its financial necessities without resort to new taxation. Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, the great statesman and astute diplomat, who may be truly called the founder of the new German Empire, still remained Prime Minister of Prussia, and was elevated to the

dignity of a prince of the Empire and was appointed by the Emperor William I. to the office of Chancellor of the Empire. The speedy success of the work of organizing the Empire was chiefly due to the energetic efforts of Prince Bismarck. A fine statue of Germania was erected on the Niederwald.

After the close of the Franco-German War, in 1871, the relations between the new German Empire and Austria-Hungary became extremely friendly. In September, 1872, the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria visited the Emperor William I. of Germany at Berlin, and was cordially received; and in 1873 the Emperor William I. and King Victor Emmanuel of Italy visited the Emperor Francis Joseph at Vienna. These visits were evidence that Austria had accepted in good faith the changes which resulted in the unification of both Germany and Italy, and that the Empire of the Hapsburgs was resolved to accept her new position and to do her duty honestly in the new arrangement of European affairs.

The Roman Catholic clergy of Germany manifested a sudden and intense opposition to the establishment of the new Empire under the leadership of Protestant Prussia. This hostility bore some relation to the dogma of papal infallibility. While the Ecumenical Council of the Roman Catholic Church was in session in the Vatican at Rome the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany had been most active in opposing this doctrine, but as soon as the doctrine was promulgated these bishops accepted it without hesitation and commanded their followers to do the same.

About the same time these German Roman Catholic bishops began their open opposition to the Empire, denouncing it from their pulpits in such seditious language that the imperial government was obliged to adopt stringent measures against them. The Reichstag passed a bill prescribing severe punishments for the utterance of seditious language in the pulpits. The German government was only induced by the gravest considerations of public policy to depart from the principle of religious toleration; as

the doctrine was not a religious affair alone, but was a political question also. The German Roman Catholic clergy directed the full force of this doctrine against the new Empire established under Protestant Prussia's ascendancy.

This struggle was a renewal of the old efforts of the Pope to establish his supremacy over Germany, and the German government could not tolerate it. That government therefore made the Roman Catholic clergy of Germany amenable to the law for their attacks on the Empire from their pulpits, and decisively announced that sedition should not be incited from the pulpit with impunity. The law applied to all religious sects; but the Roman Catholic clergy alone experienced its effects, as they were the only ones who sought to make trouble. The Roman Catholic clergy openly disregarded the law, and in 1872 the German government was obliged to inflict its penalties on a number of the defiant clergy.

The Jesuits were especially active in inciting opposition to the imperial government, and in 1872 the Reichstag passed a law expelling them from the German Empire. Their establishments were broken up, and they were driven out of Germany.

In 1872 the Prussian Diet passed an act taking the control of the primary education of the youth out of the hands of the clergy, both Protestant and Catholic, and intrusting it to officials appointed by the state. The Protestants acquiesced in this measure, but the Catholics bitterly denounced it.

The religious orders of the Redemptorists, Lazarists, the Sacred Heart (consisting of ladies) and some others, which were undeniably connected with the Jesuits, were also compelled to take themselves out of Germany. In November, 1872, a conference of the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany assembled at Fulda, and denounced the measures of the German government against the religious orders as a persecution. In December, 1872, Pope Pius IX. issued an allocution, in which he severely censured the "impudence" of the measures adopted by the German government. The Emperor

William I. thereupon broke off all diplomatic intercourse with the Pope. Alluding to the struggle of the Emperor Henry IV. and Hildebrand in 1077, Prince Bismarck said: "We are not going to Canossa."

For several years Germany was disturbed by this religious and political dispute, this struggle between Church and State. The Ultramontanes, or extreme Catholics, held allegiance to the Pope as a higher obligation than allegiance to the Emperor of Germany. The German government, under the energetic direction of Prince Bismarck, was resolved to assert practically the supremacy of the civil over the ecclesiastical power; while the Ultramontane party, encouraged by the Pope and by the reactionary party in France, sought to place the spiritual above the civil power.

In 1873 a bill introduced by Prince Bismarck was passed by the Reichstag establishing civil marriage in the German Empire and doing away with baptism as a condition of the exercise of civil duties. The Prussian Diet passed still more liberal measures, with the design of placing Prussia on an equality with other Protestant states respecting the various churches. The Roman Catholic bishops openly defied these laws, thus obliging the imperial and Prussian governments to enforce their authority. Bishops were frequently arrested, fined and imprisoned by order of the Prussian government for their defiant attitude toward the civil authority. The Prussian government withdrew the pecuniary support which it had given to the Roman Catholic clergy and institutions until the clergy should obey the laws.

In this emergency Pope Pius IX. addressed a letter to the Emperor William I., praying him not to persecute the Church, affecting to believe that the Emperor-king did not approve of the measures of the Prussian and imperial governments, expressing the hope that "the cruel laws against the Church" would be repealed, and intimating that the Papacy had some rights to the allegiance of even Protestant monarchs. To this letter the Emperor-king replied po-

lately, but firmly asserted his determination to defend the royal and imperial authority against the attacks of the Ultramontane party, and asserted that in a constitutional state like Prussia every law required the sovereign's approval and that he fully sympathized with the measures of his government. He asserted that the Roman Catholic bishops had brought their punishment

an obstinate resistance to the decrees of the government, was arrested, tried, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment. The Bishop of Treves, the Archbishop of Cologne and Bishop Janizewski of Posen were also arrested for violation of the ecclesiastical laws. The Prussian government issued an ordinance requiring all bishops when installed to swear to maintain the subordina-



POPE PIUS IX.

upon themselves, and had maliciously disturbed the peace of the German Empire, by their seditious refusal to obey the laws.

The most defiant of the clergy were the Bishop of Ermeland and Archbishop Ledochowski of Posen. The Prussian government caused the Catholic churches of Berlin and the province of Posen to be closed; and Archbishop Ledochowski, who maintained

tion of the Church to the State. In December, 1873, Pope Pius IX. issued an allocution denouncing the governments of Germany, Switzerland and Italy for their encroachments on the Church. The journals in Prussia which published the allocution were prosecuted by the government.

One of the measures to which the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany objected most

strenuously was the law concerning the education and discipline of the clergy. That law prohibited the appointment of parish priests without the previous sanction of the Prussian government, and required clerical students to undergo a course of instruction in the German universities. By these methods the Prussian government sought to *Germanize* the Roman Catholic clergy in the Prussian dominions and to insure the implanting of some element of patriotism in them.

The legal position held by the Old Catholics added a new element to the contest. The Old Catholics refused to accept the decrees of the Œcumenical Council of 1870, and claimed that the Pope and the bishops who adhered to the decree of the Council had abandoned the Roman Catholic Church, of which the Old Catholics claimed to be the true representatives. As the Roman Catholic Church had been regarded in Prussia as one of the State Churches previous to 1870, the Old Catholics claimed, as its true representatives, to be entitled to the pecuniary support granted to it by law. The imperial government refused to accept this view, but also declined to treat the Old Catholics as seceders from the Roman Catholic Church, maintaining that the question was one of the internal government of that Church, with which the state had no right to interfere. Accordingly Prussia recognized the missionary bishop of the Old Catholics as a bishop of the Roman Catholic Church, and conferred a salary upon him.

The controversy between the German Empire and the Roman Catholic Church became intensified yearly, and promised to remain an unsettled question for many years. The

chief leader of the Ultramontane party in the Reichstag in opposition to Prince Bismarck's anti-Catholic measures was Herr Windhorst.

In February, 1874, the German Reichstag passed a bill fixing the German army at four hundred and one thousand men on a peace-footing and at a million and a half on a war-footing.

On the 14th of July, 1874, while Prince Bismarck was riding out in the country, from Kissingen, in Bavaria, he was fired at by a young Catholic named Kulmann. The prince narrowly escaped assassination, the ball grazing his wrist. Kulmann was promptly arrested, and the people were with difficulty restrained from lynching him. Bismarck received over one hundred tele-

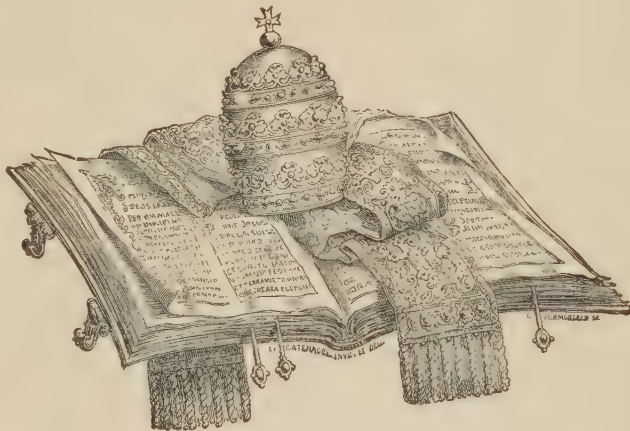
grams congratulating him upon his escape.

ITALY.

Italy and Switzerland, as well as Germany, were distracted by a quarrel between Church and State. The contest between Pope Pius IX. and the Italian government be-

came more bitter after the overthrow of the Pope's temporal power and after the city of Rome had become the capital of the Kingdom of Italy. The Italian government was obliged to adopt stern measures to maintain its authority, though the Pope's just rights were respected. In October, 1872, the Jesuits, who had given much trouble to the Italian government, were expelled from Rome. On the very same day the first scientific congress ever assembled within the walls of Rome convened in the Capitol under the presidency of Count Mamiani.

King Victor Emmanuel died January 9, 1878, and was succeeded as King of Italy by his son HUMBERT. Pope Pius IX. died about a month later, February 7, 1878; and

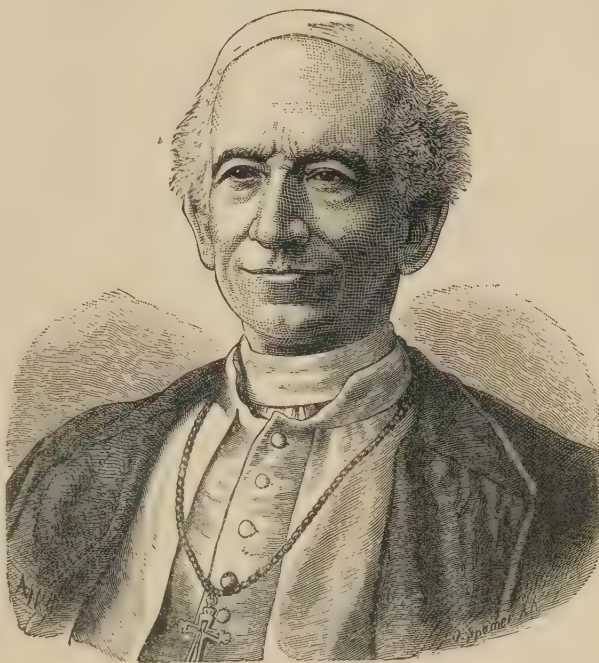


THE PAPAL INSIGNIA.

a few weeks later the conclave of cardinals from the Roman Catholic world convened at Rome and chose Cardinal Franchi to the Chair of St. Peter with the title of Leo XIII. Pius IX. had never become reconciled to the loss of his temporal power, declaring with his latest breath that he was a prisoner in the Vatican; and his successor has adopted his theories and his principles.

CONSOLIDATION OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

After the suppression of the rebellion of the Paris Commune in 1871, the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of the French Assembly and people. The Legitimists labored actively for the elevation of the Count de Chambord, the chief of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon, to the throne of France as king. The Orleanists sought to place the Count de Paris—who had served on General McClellan's staff in the American Civil War, and who



POPE LEO XIII.

wrote a history of that great conflict—on the throne. The Bonapartists, who were now comparatively weak, intrigued in behalf of the Prince Imperial, son of Napoleon III.; while the Republicans of all factions, whose recognized chief was President Thiers, were determined upon the preservation of the Republic. The Radical Republicans, headed by M. Gambetta, demanded the dissolution of the National Assembly which had met in February, 1871, and the election of a new Assembly.

During the summer of 1871 the National Assembly adopted liberal measures for the

government of the French cities and the conduct of elections. The laws banishing the Bourbon and Orleans princes having been repealed June 8, 1871, the Duke d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville, two of the Orleans princes, took their seats in the Assembly in December of the same year, having been elected thereto when the Assembly was chosen in the preceding February. The Count de Chambord, the Legitimist claimant of the French throne, returned to France; and, to the dismay of his partisans, he issued a manifesto declaring that he relinquished

none of his claims and that he would never renounce the white flag of the Bourbons for the tricolor; after which he returned to his residence at Frohsdorf, in Germany. The Count de Chambord's declaration so disgusted the French nation that his adherents were obliged to abandon their hopes of elevating him to the throne of his ancestors.

The three monarchical parties in France—the Legitimists, the Or-

leanists and the Bonapartists—were only agreed in their opposition to the Republic; and none of the three was willing to abandon the cause of its claimant for the throne. This disagreement rendered it clear that the Republic was the only form of government possible for France for the present. The French people had generally accepted the Republic, and discountenanced all the schemes for substituting a Legitimist or Orleanist kingdom or a Bonapartist Empire in its stead.

The supplementary elections to fill vacancies in the National Assembly in January,

1872, resulted in the choice of thirteen Republicans and four Conservatives, or Monarchists. The discussions on the question of a permanent form of government were renewed in the Assembly. The Conservatives, or Monarchists, had a majority in the Assembly; and for some time it seemed that they would be able to subvert the Republic and substitute a monarchy in its stead. The Monarchist majority in the Assembly had little regard for the sentiment of the French nation, which was most pronounced in favor of the continuance of the Republic; but the impossibility of reconciling the conflicting claims of the different pretenders to the French throne frustrated the Monarchist schemes, and obliged all parties in France to give their immediate support to the Republic.

The National Assembly then directed its attention to the task of providing for the immediate necessities of the French nation. President Thiers presented a new tariff bill to the Assembly in January, 1872, imposing new duties upon foreign imports and even levying a tax upon raw materials. This favorite measure of the President of the Republic met with strong opposition in the Assembly and throughout the country, and was finally rejected by the Assembly, January 19, 1872. President Thiers tendered his resignation the next day, but the Assembly by an almost unanimous vote asked him to withdraw it, and he acceded to the Assembly's request.

During the summer of 1872 there were many evidences of the growth of republican sentiment among the French people, particularly the large gains made by the Republicans in the supplementary elections on October 21, 1872, to fill vacancies in the Assembly.

A short time before these elections M. Gambetta had made a speech to the electors of Grenoble, declaring that the political power of France must be transferred to a new social stratum—a declaration which was generally interpreted as implying that the exclusive supremacy of artisans and laborers, which had been the main object of

the revolt of the Paris Commune the previous year, was to be established by a democratic Assembly after the necessary preliminaries of a dissolution. The conservative parties in the Assembly were seriously alarmed at M. Gambetta's declaration in this speech, and they accordingly united solidly against the Republicans.

An exciting debate occurred in the National Assembly on November 18, 1872, as to whether the government had sufficiently endeavored to suppress the demonstrations which Gambetta had excited. President Thiers participated in this debate, defending his Administration, and demanding a vote of confidence from the Assembly. The vote of confidence that was then taken was so unsatisfactorily given that a new quarrel arose between the President and the Assembly. The committee appointed to draft an address in reply to the President's message made a report on November 26, 1872, sharply criticising the document. Indignant at this treatment, President Thiers threatened to resign; but the affair was compromised by the appointment of a Committee of Thirty, December 5, 1872, which was assigned the task of drafting a bill defining the relations between the President and the Assembly, and regulating the responsibility of the different departments of the government.

Gambetta, Crémieux and other leaders of the Left, as the Republican party in the Assembly was called, published a manifesto, December 10, 1872, demanding the dissolution of the Assembly and the election of a new Assembly as the proper method of ascertaining the will of the French people concerning the questions at issue. Several petitions to the same effect were presented to the Assembly from the departments, but were rejected by the Assembly.

The plans of the Bonapartists were disconcerted by the death of the ex-Emperor Napoleon III. at Chislehurst, England, January 9, 1873. His death was sincerely regretted by the French people, whose material welfare he had done much to promote, notwithstanding his many faults.

The Committee of Thirty reported a bill

early in January, 1873, defining the powers of the President and the Assembly; and a long and exciting debate ensued, during which President Thiers several times threatened to resign. The committee's report was finally adopted in a greatly modified form, March 13, 1873. A bill was passed March 29, 1873, exiling the Bonapartist family from France. Supplementary elections to fill vacancies in the National Assembly were held April 27, 1873, which resulted in the choice of several Radical leaders.

President Thiers made several changes in his Ministry. The Monarchist majority in the Assembly did not consider the new Cabinet sufficiently conservative, and sharply criticised the President's action. None of the monarchical parties in the Assembly accepted the Republic in good faith; and each hoped that the uncertain condition of affairs in which the nation was placed would offer to it the opportunity of subverting the Republic and restoring the monarchy to which it was devoted, each striving to obtain the President's support in such a course.

M. Thiers recommended the definitive establishment of the Conservative Republic. The struggle between the Republicans and the Monarchists in the Assembly continued until the 23d of May, 1873, when the Monarchist majority in the Assembly demanded the organization of a more conservative Ministry. On that day a violent scene took place in the Assembly. When President Thiers mounted the tribune to address the Assembly his voice was drowned by the cries of the Monarchists. After vainly endeavoring to make himself heard, the President descended the tribune; and, amid the greatest confusion and excitement, the Assembly adjourned. On the following day, May 24, 1873, President Thiers addressed the Assembly, urging the definitive establishment of the Republic. After a violent debate, and the defeat of the government on several votes in the Assembly, the Ministry resigned; and a message from M. Thiers was read in the Assembly, in which he tendered his resignation as President of the Republic, which was accepted by a vote of

the Assembly. The Assembly then elected Marshal MacMahon to the Presidency of the Republic. The new President announced a conservative policy, and formed a Cabinet composed chiefly of Monarchists with the Duke de Broglie at its head.

For some time after the election of President MacMahon the Conservative, or Monarchist, party in the Assembly was reinforced by accessions from the Republican ranks. Many Monarchists were appointed to office throughout France; and the government felt sufficiently strong to forbid the popular celebration of the third anniversary of the establishment of the Third French Republic, September 4th.

It was soon apparent that the Conservative party was resolved upon the reëstablishment of monarchy in France. The Orleans princes and their leading partisans visited the Count de Chambord at Frohsdorf, and formally acknowledged the hereditary right of the Count de Chambord as "Henry V." But in this crisis the Count de Chambord, with true Bourbon obstinacy, addressed a letter to M. de Chesnelong declaring that he would never consent to relinquish the white flag of his ancestors for the tricolor—a declaration which at once dissolved the coalition in his favor and dispelled the hopes of his adherents. On the night of November 19, 1873, the Assembly by a decisive vote adopted the Septennate, prolonging President MacMahon's powers for seven years.

The government now considered itself sufficiently strong to bring Marshal Bazaine to trial for the surrender of Metz during the war with Germany. He was charged with treason in surrendering his army and the fortress of Metz without adequate cause. He was found guilty December 10, 1873, and was sentenced to be shot; but President MacMahon commuted his sentence to degradation from his rank and twenty years' imprisonment. He was imprisoned in the fortress of the island of St. Marguerite, but escaped therefrom in the summer of 1874.

The Broglie Ministry resigned in May, 1874, in consequence of a defeat in the Assembly; and a new Ministry, in which the

Duke Decazes was the chief member, was formed. The quarrels of the different parties in the National Assembly forced all these parties to support the Septennate; while President MacMahon declared his determination to maintain, against all opposition, the power with which the Assembly had intrusted him, to the end of his seven years' term.

In the meantime the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of the National Assembly. After voting the prolongation of President MacMahon's powers for seven years, the Assembly devoted itself to the framing of Constitutional Bills. Finally, in February, 1875, the Assembly passed Constitutional Bills, providing for the establishment of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies, which were to be vested with the legislative power, while the executive power was to be entrusted to a President of the Republic, who was to be elected for seven years by both Chambers of the Assembly in joint convention. The Constitution also provided that the President of the Republic, with the advice and consent of the Senate, could dissolve the Chamber of Deputies. The principle of Ministerial responsibility was established. The Senate was to consist of three hundred members, of which two hundred and twenty-five were to be elected by the Councils-Generals, the Municipal Councils and the arrondissements, and seventy-five by the Chamber of Deputies; and all Senators were to be irremovable. The Chamber of Deputies was to be elected by universal suffrage. The Senate Bill was passed on February 24, 1875, by four hundred and forty-eight yeas to two hundred and forty-one nays. On the same day the Assembly recognized the Republic by passing the Public Powers Bill by a vote of four hundred and thirty-three yeas to two hundred and sixty-two nays. An Electoral Bill, prescribing the conditions of suffrage, was debated for many months, and was finally passed in December, 1875. The Assembly appointed the 7th of March, 1876, as the day of meeting for the new Assembly, thus voting its own dissolution.

WORLD'S FAIRS.

In the meantime there had been World's Fairs, or International Exhibitions, at London in 1862, at Paris in 1867, and at Vienna in 1873; at each of which the various nations vied with one another in making displays of their different products and manufactures.

ACHEENESE WAR.

In the spring of 1873 Holland became involved in a war with the Acheenese of the island of Sumatra. This war continued for about a year, and finally ended in the spring of 1874, when the Acheenese were reduced to submission.

BRITISH AFFAIRS.

In 1871 the British Empire was enlarged by the purchase of part of the island of New Guinea, in the East Indies, and the Gold Coast of Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, from Holland; and early in 1874 the Feejee Islands, in the South Pacific, were also annexed to the British dominion by the consent of the natives.

The British occupation of the Gold Coast of Western Africa led to a war with the negro King of Ashantee, who had received a stipend from the Dutch when they occupied the Gold Coast, and who demanded the same payment from the British since their occupation of that district in 1872. The British authorities at Cape Coast Castle refused to pay such stipend, and demanded that King Coffee Calcalli should withdraw his Ashantee warriors from the British territories on the Gold Coast; but the King of Ashantee refused to comply with this demand. In August, 1873, Mr. Gladstone's Ministry sent a military expedition under General Sir Garnet Wolseley to invade the negro kingdom of Ashantee, for the purpose of compelling King Coffee Calcalli to withdraw his negro warriors from the British territories on the Gold Coast. After losing many men from the unhealthiness of the climate, and after numerous victories over the Ashantees, Sir Garnet Wolseley stormed and took Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, early in February, 1874, and compelled King Coffee Calcalli to accept the British

conditions of peace and to agree to respect the British possessions on the Gold Coast, thus giving peace and protection to the English settlements in that quarter.

The magnitude and rapidity of Mr. Gladstone's reforms finally alarmed the English

ion by a dissolution of Parliament. The elections in February, 1874, returned an overwhelming Tory, or Conservative, majority in the new House of Commons ; whereupon Mr. Gladstone and his fellow Ministers resigned, after a tenure of office of more



QUEEN VICTORIA.

nation, and produced so rapid a reaction in public sentiment that the House of Commons, in January, 1874, rejected his bill for the organization of university education in Ireland. Thereupon Mr. Gladstone felt himself constrained to consult public opin-

than five years ; and a Conservative Ministry under Mr. Disraeli came into power, and remained in office for the next six years, 1874-1880.

The first important event of Mr. Disraeli's Administration was the passage of a Public

Worship Regulation Bill by Parliament in the spring of 1874. In the spring of 1875 a Merchant Shipping Bill was introduced into Parliament for the protection of the lives of sailors by preventing ship-owners from floating unseaworthy vessels. The Ministry announced a postponement of the measure in the House of Commons, whereupon Mr. Plimsoll arose and denounced those who exposed the lives of seamen in worthless ships as "scoundrels." This created quite a scene, and the Speaker called upon Mr. Plimsoll to withdraw the offensive expression, but Mr. Plimsoll angrily retired from the House instead. Upon resuming his seat the next day he made a qualified apology. This incident had the effect of rousing public sentiment, and public meetings were held which sustained Mr. Plimsoll and demanded the speedy passage of the Merchant Shipping Bill. The public press voiced the sentiment of the English people; and Parliament was obliged to pass the measure without delay, thus protecting the lives of seamen against unprincipled ship-owners, who were willing to expose them to watery graves for the sake of getting the insurance on unseaworthy vessels.

In the fall of 1875 the British government purchased a two-thirds' interest in the Suez Canal, thus securing control of that great highway to India.

In 1858 Lord Elgin became Governor-General of British India, and in 1863 he was succeeded by Lord Lawrence. Lord Mayo became Governor-General in 1868, but was assassinated in 1872, and was succeeded by Lord Northbrook. In 1876 Lord Lytton became Governor-General.

In 1874 the British authorities in India caused the Guikwar of Baroda, a native Hindoo prince, to be deposed for his oppression of his subjects and for his disregard of his engagements with the British Indian government. In the fall of 1875 the British became involved in hostilities with some of the natives of Malacca, but the hostile tribes were soon reduced to submission.

During the years 1873, 1874, 1875 and 1876 a large portion of India was ravaged

by a terrible famine. The Anglo-Indian government exerted itself to its utmost to relieve the suffering, but the distress was so wide-spread and extensive that these exertions were only partly successful. In the fall of 1875 the Prince of Wales visited India, and was everywhere welcomed with great cordiality and imposing demonstrations. The expenses of this visit were enormous and were paid by the British government.

Parliament passed an act in April, 1876, conferring upon Queen Victoria the title of *Empress of India*; and this act became a law upon receiving the royal assent, May 2, 1876. The new title was very unpopular with the British press and people. In August, 1876, Mr. Disraeli was rewarded for this service to Her Majesty by being raised to the House of Lords with the title of Earl of Beaconsfield. On the 1st of January, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at Delhi with great pomp; the ceremonies being conducted under the auspices of the Governor-General, Lord Lytton, in the presence of people from various parts of India.

RUSSIA'S CONQUESTS IN CENTRAL ASIA.

Ever since the overthrow of the Tartar power by the Czars of Muscovy, Russia has steadily extended her conquests eastward into Central Asia. At first her object was simply vengeance on the barbarous Mongol tribes that had held her in subjection for so long a period, and the extension of her territory. Afterward these conquests in Central Asia became necessary to Russia to provide a market for her manufactures, which had no sale in Europe on account of their inferior quality. The steppes between the Ural and the Irtysh were occupied by small tribes of wandering Kirghiz, who attacked the Russian frontier and forced Russia to drive them into the interior of the steppes. This irregular warfare continued two centuries.

In the reign of the Czar Nicholas the steppes east of the Ural were annexed to the Russian Empire, and some outposts and settlements were established on the steppes and

75 Longitude East from Greenwich

85

90

HISTORICAL MAP OF BRITISH INDIA

Since A. D. 1751
By I. S. Clare

SCALE OF MILES.



- French Possessions
Bondicherry, Chandernagore and Mahé
- Portuguese Possessions
Goa, Diu and Damão
- Danish Possession
Tranquebar
- Boundary of The Mahratta States in 1760
- Boundary of British Territories in 1760
Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Surat
and Severndroog
- Dutch Possession before 1796
- Ceylon





on the banks of the Sir Darya river beyond. The most important of these outposts was Fort Perovsky, on the shore of the Sea of Aral; and under its protection Russia was enabled to launch two steamers on the Sea of Aral and to navigate that inland sea and a part of the Sir Darya.

The Khans of Khokand and Bokhara steadily opposed the Russian advances, and their combined forces repeatedly attacked the Russian outposts. In order to strengthen its position and to put a stop to these attacks of the Khans of the Tartar states of Turkestan, the Russian government resolved to construct a new line of outposts along the Sir Darya to the foot of the Thian-Shan mountains and Lake Issik-kul. This enterprise was delayed by the Crimean War, and it was not resumed until 1860, when Forts Viernoie and Kastek were constructed at the foot of the Thian-Shan range.

In 1863 two strong Russian detachments advanced into Central Asia and occupied the Khokand fortresses of Pishpek, Tokmak and Yeni-Kurgan. In June, 1864, the Russian detachment under Colonel Verefkin took Hazret-i-Turkestan; and about the same time the other Russian detachment under Colonel Tchernayeff captured Fort Auliet. In October, 1864, the two detachments, under Colonel Tchernayeff, entered Tchemkend.

Russia then ordered her commanders in Turkestan to cease from further conquests for the time, and to secure the territory already occupied by their forces; but this policy was prevented by the action of the Khans of Bokhara, Khokand and Khiva. These princes of Turkestan were alarmed by the proximity of the Russian outposts to their dominions; and accordingly they began a series of formidable attacks upon these outposts, thus forcing the Russian commanders to push their advance eastward in order to insure their own safety, and commencing the wars which finally resulted in the Russian conquest of the Khanates of Turkestan.

In a war with the Khan of Bokhara, the Russians took Tashkend in 1865 and Kho-

jend in 1866; and in 1868 a Russian force under General Kaufmann captured Samarcand. In 1871 the Russians subdued Soongaria, which had fought itself independent of Chinese rule in 1864. Early in 1873 a war broke out between Russia and Khiva, and a Russian military expedition under General Kaufmann was sent against the Khivans. After several engagements, in which the Khivans were defeated, General Kaufmann entered the Khivan capital in triumph, and dictated terms of peace to the terrified Khan of Khiva, June, 1873. In the fall of 1873 the Russians defeated the Turkomans. In the summer of 1875 hostilities broke out between Russia and Khokand. A Russian army under General Kaufmann invaded Khokand, defeated thirty thousand Khokand troops, and captured the Khokand capital, September, 1875. At the same time the Khan of Khiva was defeated by General Kaufmann, and was forced to cede the entire eastern coast of the Caspian Sea to Russia—an important military gain for Russia, as it enabled her to maintain constant and uninterrupted communication with her advanced posts by sea, river and rail from St. Petersburg. General Kaufmann completed the conquest of Khokand early in 1876; and the territory of that Khanate was annexed to the Russian Empire by an imperial ukase, and was organized as a Russian province under the name of *Ferghana*.

TURKEY AND EGYPT.

ABBAS PASHA had been governor of Cairo before the death of his uncle Ibrahim Pasha, in November, 1848, made him viceroy of Egypt. As governor of Cairo he had committed such cruelties that when Ibrahim Pasha became viceroy of Egypt he was exiled to Hedjaz, in Arabia. Abbas Pasha was a true Mussulman, and sought to undo all the work of civilization that his predecessors had accomplished. He erected palaces and fortresses in the desert, and was in the habit of shutting himself up in them for months at a time, neglecting his government during such absences. He abolished the educational institutions which his pred-

ecessors had established, and disbanded the army on the ground of economy. He was an intense enemy to Europeans, discharging all of them who were in the service of the state, and endeavoring to expel them from the country. He refused all concessions to Europeans, with the exception of granting permission to an English company to construct a railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez.

In 1852 the Sultan of Turkey ordered Abbas Pasha to introduce the Tanzimat, or fundamental law of Turkey, into Egypt. This code granted greater liberties to the Egyptians than they had ever before enjoyed, and diminished the autocratic power of the viceroy. Abbas Pasha at first declined to comply with the Sultan's order, but was at length obliged to obey his suzerain's mandate. He came very near being called to account by the Sultan for his cruelties to his relatives, and only escaped by his bribes of money at Constantinople. He furnished a contingent of fifteen thousand men to the Turkish army during the Crimean War. He died suddenly July 12, 1854, and is believed to have been assassinated by two Mamelukes in the service of a princess of his family whose life he had threatened.

Abbas Pasha was succeeded as viceroy of Egypt by SAID PASHA, the fourth son of Mehemet Ali. Said Pasha was a better and a wiser ruler than his immediate predecessor. He commenced his rule by diminishing the powers of the mudirs and the sheikhs-el-beled. He organized a new army and introduced a better system of conscription, established a more equitable system of taxation, and permitted the sale of produce to other purchasers beside the government. He likewise undertook several important internal improvements, among which were the cleansing of the Mahmoudieh canal, which had become a fruitful source of pestilence, and the continuation of the railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez. He likewise gave the first impetus to the construction of the Suez Canal, to one of the termini of which his name has been assigned. At the

close of the Crimean War he had a large army, which he employed in checking the raids of the Bedouins of the desert, and in invading that portion of Nubia which had not yet been annexed to Egypt, and of which he now assumed the protectorate. He died January 18, 1863.

Said Pasha was succeeded in the viceroyalty of Egypt by his nephew ISMAIL PASHA, who continued his uncle's reforms in a more enlightened and vigorous manner. The civil war in the United States had caused a great scarcity of cotton, and Ismail Pasha profited by the demand for that product to introduce its culture into Egypt. He fostered this new industry with such care and wisdom that Egypt has become one of the leading cotton markets of the world. He was an ardent friend and patron of the Suez Canal, which was completed and opened November 17, 1869, in the presence of a large and brilliant concourse of guests from every portion of the globe, and which was the work of the great French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps.

By the payment of a vast sum of money to the Ottoman Porte, Ismail Pasha obtained a reversal of the Mohammedan law of succession, by which the Egyptian viceroyalty was thenceforth to be transmitted from father to son. In 1866 he furnished a corps of thirty thousand men to the Ottoman Porte to suppress the Cretan rebellion, and soon afterward he voluntarily augmented the amount of his tribute.

In 1867 Ismail Pasha obtained from the Ottoman Porte the right to make such laws as were necessary for the internal government of Egypt and to conclude treaties with foreign powers concerning general transit and postal affairs. He asked the Ottoman Porte to grant him the title of "Sovereign of the Land of Egypt," but received instead the title of *Khedive*, or viceroy.

Ismail Pasha afterward demanded for Egypt independent legislation and diplomatic representation to foreign governments. The sublime Porte now perceived that he was aiming at absolute independence of Turkish dominion, and declined to

concede his requests. Thereupon Ismail Pasha threatened to withdraw his troops from Candia, or to seize that island for himself, if the Sultan refused to concede his demands; and for a while a war seemed imminent between the Sultan and his ambitious vassal. The threatened struggle was averted by the intervention of the Great Powers of Europe, which forced the Khedive to relinquish his ambitious designs and to submit to the Sultan's authority.

In 1868 Ismail Pasha extended his dominion over the region of the Upper Nile. During the same year he undertook to negotiate a foreign loan, and sent invitations to the European monarchs to attend the opening of the Suez Canal. These acts of the Khedive greatly offended the Ottoman Porte, as they were acts which an independent sovereign only had the right to do.

The Porte therefore ordered the Khedive to reduce his army to thirty thousand men; to countermand his order for iron-clads and improved arms, which he had contracted for in France; to refrain thenceforth from all diplomatic acts and from contracting loans; and to submit his annual budget of expenditures at Constantinople for inspection and approval. The Khedive refused to obey the Sultan's orders, and announced his intention of contracting loans whenever and wherever he pleased.

The Sultan was about to send an ultimatum to the Khedive, but England and France induced him to wait until after the opening of the Suez Canal. No sooner were the festivities ended than the Sultan sent his ultimatum to the Khedive requiring him to choose between submission and war. As the European powers would not sustain the Khedive in his efforts for independence, Ismail Pasha announced his submission to the Sultan's will, December 9, 1869, thus for the time laying aside his schemes for independence.

Ismail Pasha then devoted himself to the reduction of the region south of Nubia, as far as the sources of the Nile, under his dominion, and succeeded in that undertaking. In 1874 Darfur was conquered by his troops

under the command of Colonel Gordon, a Scotchman in his service. The Khedive was also generally successful in several wars which he waged with Abyssinia, though his troops sustained several reverses in 1875 and 1876.

The Khedive drew a military cordon and opened roads for traffic through the other native territories. He intended to transform those regions into an agricultural district. He supplied the chiefs with seed, and held them under obligation to furnish certain quantities of produce. Thus he made their stores of ivory, gums, hides, wax, gold, etc., more accessible; and he was enabled to secure the wealth of those regions for the benefit of Egypt by means of the railways and telegraphs which he rapidly built through Nubia, as well as by his control over the Red Sea and the Suez Canal.

By these efforts to build up the prosperity of Egypt, the Khedive won back the Sultan's favor; and the Sultan issued a firman, June 8, 1873, confirming the privileges which Ismail Pasha's predecessors had enjoyed, and changing Egypt from a Turkish tributary dependency into an almost independent sovereign kingdom. This firman authorized the Khedive to make laws and internal regulations; to organize every means of defense and to increase the number of his troops without limit; to contract commercial treaties with foreign powers; to conclude other treaties regulating the position of foreigners in Egypt, and their intercourse with the Egyptian government and the Egyptian people; to contract loans in foreign countries in the name of the Egyptian government; and to have complete and absolute control of the finances of Egypt.

This firman forbade the Khedive to make treaties relating to political matters, prohibited him having agents accredited at foreign courts, required the money coined in Egypt to be coined in the Sultan's name, required the Turkish flag to be borne by the Egyptian army and navy, and forbade the building of iron-clad vessels for the Egyptian navy without the Sultan's permission. The Khedive retained the privilege of conferring

military promotions up to the rank of colonel, and civil grades to the rank of *rutbeh-i-sanieh* only. The Khedive was also required to pay to the Sultan a tribute of one hundred and fifty thousand purses yearly.

At the opening of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 the Khedive sent a strong contingent of Egyptian troops to Europe for service in the Turkish army.

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877-'78.

In July, 1875, the peasants of Herzegovina and Bosnia, provinces in the West of European Turkey, rose in rebellion against the Ottoman government to resist the collection of taxes by the officials of the Porte. The insurrection became quite formidable, and fears were entertained that the peace of Europe was jeopardized. The consuls of the Great European Powers met at Mostar, in September, 1875, and endeavored to bring about a pacification by inducing the Porte to grant needed reforms and reasonable concessions to the Herzegovinians and Bosnians; while, at the same time, they tried to induce the insurgents to submit, but failed. Many engagements of an unimportant character and without decisive results occurred during the summer and autumn of 1875, and during the following winter and spring. Cetigne, Trebigne and Nicsic were the scenes of stubborn conflicts and close sieges by the insurgents; but the result of the struggle continued indecisive. The Turks relieved Trebigne in January, 1876, and Nicsic in March, 1876. The Bosnian insurgents committed frightful atrocities, and fought bloody actions with the Turks.

In October, 1875, the Turkish government failed to meet the interest on its debt, the principal of which was more than nine hundred million dollars. The Porte issued a firman promising speedy payment of half the interest and making provision for the payment of the other half—a promise which was not redeemed.

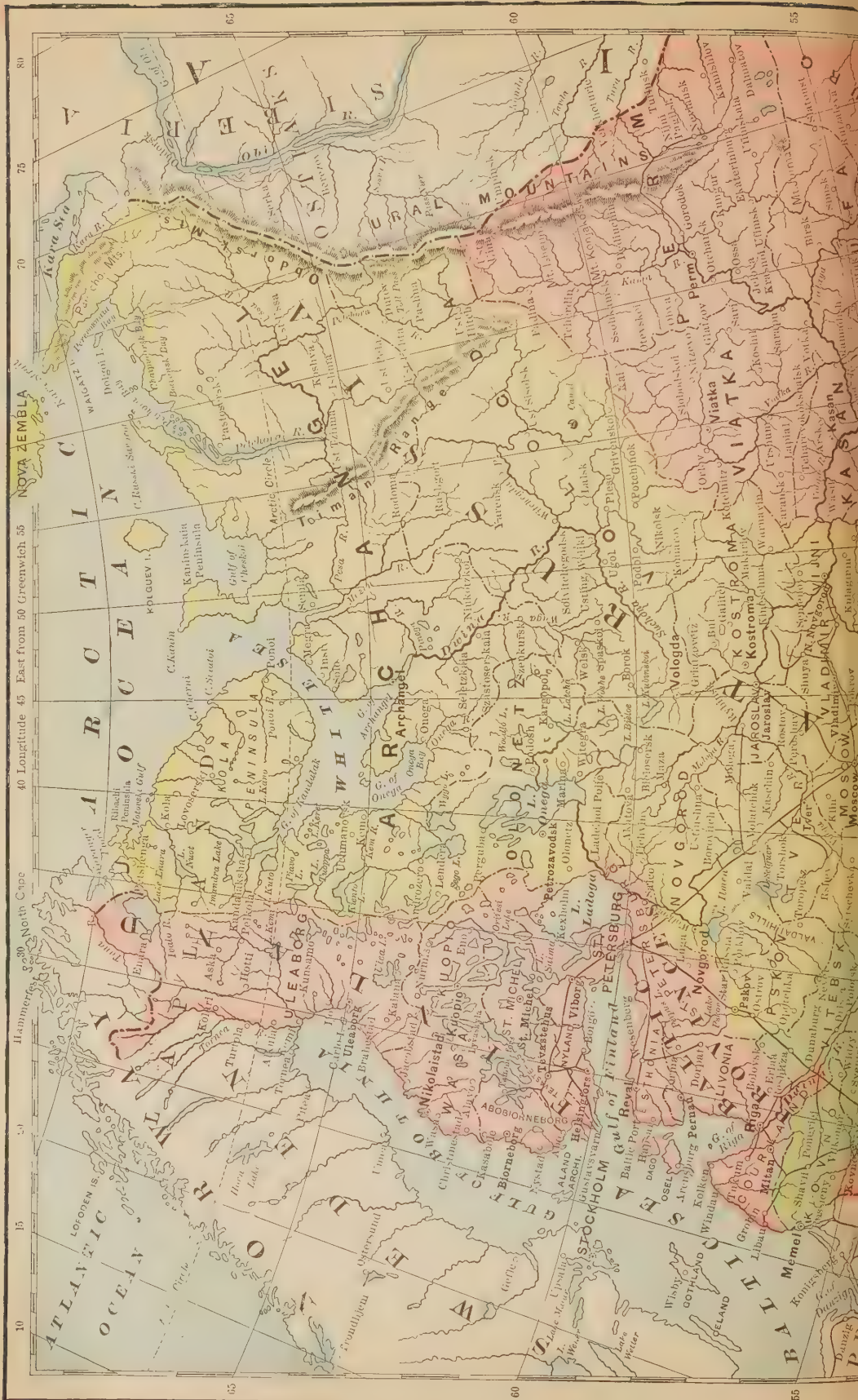
Count Andrassy, who had succeeded Baron von Beust as Prime Minister of Austria-Hungary, drew up a note relative to reforms in Turkey, which was approved by

Russia, Italy, France, Germany and England, and which was communicated to the Porte, January 31, 1876. The Porte promised to introduce the reforms asked for by Count Andrassy's note, but the insurgents of Herzegovina and Bosnia rejected the reforms because they were not consulted in the arrangement. Toward the close of March, 1876, an armistice was concluded between the contending parties.

During a riot at Salonica, May 6, 1876, between the Christians and the Mohammedans, the French and German consuls were murdered by the exasperated Moslem populace. In compliance with the demands of the French and German ambassadors at Constantinople, the Porte executed the murderers, indemnified the families of the victims, gave guarantees against similar atrocities in the future, and offered a solemn salute to the French and German flags. The funerals of the murdered consuls took place at Salonica on May 19, 1876, with great ceremonies.

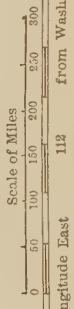
The three Imperial Chancellors—Prince Gortschakoff of Russia, Prince Bismarck of Germany and Count Andrassy of Austria-Hungary—met in conference at Prince Bismarck's residence at Berlin, May 11, 1876, and agreed upon a memorandum drawn up by Prince Gortschakoff for the pacification of the Ottoman Empire upon the terms of Count Andrassy's note. France and Italy concurred in the results of the conference, but England objected because the memorandum proposed a threat of armed intervention by the Six Great Powers in case their friendly mediation failed to effect a pacification. The Herzegovinians and Bosnians rejected the proposition of the Berlin conference of the three Imperial Chancellors, and the Porte asked for a modification of the memorandum before it gave its acceptance to its propositions. As the Berlin memorandum thus failed it was withdrawn.

On May 29, 1876, the Turkish Ministers, sustained by a decree of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, the spiritual head of the Mohammedan Church, met at the Grand Vizier's residence, and drew up a petition to Sultan Abdul





RUSSIA IN EUROPE





Aziz entreating him to abdicate his throne in order to save the Ottoman Empire from ruin. The next day, May 30, 1876, there was an immense popular demonstration in Constantinople. The trade guilds, headed by the Softas, marched to the Seraglio, and compelled Abdul Aziz to abdicate in favor of his nephew, who was then proclaimed Sultan with the title of AMURATH V., or MURAD V. The deposed Abdul Aziz was confined in the Tcheragan Palace, where he was found dead several days later, June 4, 1876; believed at the time to have committed suicide, but a few years afterward discovered to have been murdered. His remains were honored with imposing funeral obsequies, and were placed in the mausoleum of Sultan Mahmoud II.

Hussein Avni Pasha, the Turkish Minister of War, and Reschid Pasha, Minister of Foreign Affairs, were shot and killed at the residence of the Grand Vizier, June 15, 1876, by Hassan Bey, a Circassian officer in the Turkish army, in revenge for his recent imprisonment for refusing to go to Bagdad, where he had been assigned to duty. The vacant offices were immediately filled, and the assassin was hanged June 20, 1876.

From the time of the outbreak of the Herzegovinian insurrection the tributary Principality of Servia had maintained a warlike attitude toward its suzerain, the Ottoman Porte, and had shown a disposition to espouse the cause of the insurgents of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Porte had in the meantime anticipated the warlike designs of Servia by sending troops to the Servian frontier, and both parties were ready for hostilities. At the beginning of July, 1876, Prince Milan of Servia declared war against his suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey, alleging as his reason the threatening attitude of the Ottoman Porte toward Servia, and its failure to satisfy the demands of Bosnia. At the same time Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, another tributary vassal of the Sultan of Turkey, entered the field against the Ottoman Porte in support of the cause of Herzegovina. Thus there were four Turkish provinces in open rebellion against the Porte

—Herzegovina, Bosnia, Montenegro and Servia.

The war which now opened was of the most sanguinary character. During the whole of July, August and September, 1876, the struggle raged fiercely; and battles between the Turks and the Servians were of almost daily occurrence. The valleys of the Drina, the Morava and the Timok were drenched with blood; and Izvor, Derbent, Saitschar, Gurgosovatz, Paratchin, Pandiröla, Podgoritzza, Alexinatz and Deligrad were repeatedly the scenes of sanguinary conflicts. The Servian armies, commanded by Generals Tchernayeff, Leschjanin, Antitch, Olympics, Horvatovich, Paulovich and others, resisted with great bravery; but the Turkish forces, under the command of Osman Pasha, Dervish Pasha, Hafiz Pasha, Suleiman Pasha, Kerim Pasha, Mehemet Ali Pasha and others, were successful in nearly every encounter; but in Montenegro and Herzegovina the Ottoman troops under Mukhtar Pasha and Selim Pasha suffered a series of calamitous defeats. Finally, in September, 1876, the Servians were reduced to such straits that the Servian government became anxious for peace.

A rebellion having broken out in Bulgaria in May, 1876, the Porte sent Circassians and Bashi-Bazouks to subdue the revolt. These irregular troops committed the most fiendish atrocities upon the Bulgarians after the suppression of the insurrection, massacring men, women and children without discrimination and in the most cruel manner. According to the reports of English newspaper correspondents and the American Consul, Mr. Schuyler, twelve thousand Bulgarians fell victims to the savage fury of the Circassians and Bashi-Bazouks, and sixty villages were reduced to ashes. These atrocities aroused the most intense indignation in England. Immense public meetings were held in every part of that kingdom to denounce the outrages, and in London several monster demonstrations were held. The British press loudly called for the interference of the government to compel the Turks to respect the usages of civilized

warfare; and the British government, under the pressure of public sentiment, instituted measures to secure an investigation of the Bulgarian outrages. An animated debate occurred in the British House of Commons, and Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry was severely censured for its indifference. Mr. Baring, the Secretary of the British embassy at Constantinople, in his report, estimated the number massacred in and around Philippopolis at twelve thousand. The British government called upon the Ottoman Porte to punish the perpetrators of the outrages, and received promises that justice should be done; but the Porte was slow in fulfilling its promises.

In July, 1876, the Porte was obliged to declare its insolvency by announcing that all payments on account of the Turkish national debt must be suspended until after the subjugation of its revolted provinces. As almost the whole of this debt was due to people in Western Europe, chiefly British subjects, the failure of Turkey to meet her obligations greatly weakened the friendship which England had thus far felt for her.

Sultan Amurath V. was so hopelessly an imbecile that a Council of Ministers and great dignitaries of the Ottoman Empire, in conformity with a decree of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, proclaimed his deposition, August 31, 1876, and declared his brother ABDUL HAMID II. Sultan of Turkey.

In consequence of the Turkish victories, the Princes of Servia and Montenegro made overtures for peace; and their demand was sustained by England. Sir Henry George Elliott, the British ambassador at Constantinople, presented to the Porte a demand for an armistice of one month, to be followed by negotiations for peace. England's demand was sustained by the other foreign ambassadors at the Turkish capital. The Porte refused to grant an armistice, but expressed its willingness to treat for peace. Turkey's refusal to grant an armistice threatened fresh complications in the East, as Russia seemed disposed to insist on the demand for an armistice. Finally, about the middle of September, 1876, both Turkey and Servia

agreed upon a suspension of hostilities for ten days, afterward prolonged eight days, and negotiations for peace were opened; but Turkey's conditions were rejected by both Servia and Montenegro, and thus the negotiations failed.

Terms of peace proposed by the Great European Powers were rejected by Turkey, and the relations between Russia and Turkey were daily becoming more precarious. The Russian government was unable to restrain the warlike ardor of its subjects, who were in hearty sympathy with the Servians. England was jealous of Russian interference in Turkish affairs, and her interests demanded the upholding of the Ottoman Empire; but the English people, whose indignation had been aroused by the Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria, opposed the Eastern policy of the Earls of Beaconsfield and Derby. Germany seemed disposed to support Russia's position, but Austria-Hungary and Italy opposed it. The Great Powers made continuous efforts for an armistice. Servia, as well as Turkey, rejected the peace proposals of the European Powers. Russia proposed a joint intervention of the Great Powers in Turkish affairs; but France, England and Austria-Hungary declined the proposition. Russia now seemed disposed to openly support Servia, and a war between Russia and Turkey appeared imminent. The Porte proposed a six months' armistice; but Russia opposed this, and demanded a six weeks' armistice instead.

On October 12, 1876, Turkey formally rejected the peace propositions of the Great European Powers. Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, issued a circular to the other Great Powers, opposing a six months' armistice and demanding a six weeks' armistice instead. Russia threatened an invasion of Turkey in case of a refusal of a short armistice. War between Russia and Turkey appeared inevitable, and much uneasiness prevailed in all the great European capitals. War risks were required in London, and Lloyds were called upon to have steamers ready to transport troops. England was making warlike prepa-

rations, and the British fleets in the Mediterranean were under sailing orders. Much bitter feeling against Russia was manifested in England, the recent excitement on account of the Bulgarian atrocities having died away. Russian troops were concentrating at Bender and at Tiflis, preparatory to invading both European and Asiatic Turkey; while the Ottoman Porte was concentrating two large armies, one in European Turkey and the other in Asiatic Turkey, to resist Russian invasion.

France and Germany supported Russia's proposal for a six weeks' armistice. On the day that the Turks captured Alexinatz, October 31, 1876, General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, presented an ultimatum to the Porte, demanding the acceptance of a two months' armistice and a suspension of hostilities within forty-eight hours, threatening, in case of a refusal, to break off all diplomatic relations with Turkey and to leave Constantinople with the whole Russian embassy. The Porte consented to the Russian demands, and the armistice was signed November 1, 1876, thus suspending hostilities between the Turks and the Servians. Montenegro also accepted the armistice. Upon the conclusion of the armistice, the Great Powers agreed upon holding a peace conference at Constantinople to settle the Eastern question. The conference was summoned on the basis of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

On November 10, 1876, the Czar Alexander II. of Russia delivered an important speech at Moscow, in reply to an address from the citizens, declaring that he would demand guarantees from the Ottoman Porte, and threatening a declaration of war in case of a refusal of such guarantees. The speech was received with enthusiastic cheers. The Czar's declarations were everywhere applauded throughout the Russian Empire. In the midst of the preparations for the peace conference, the most warlike demonstrations were going on in Russia. Great Britain was excited by distrust of Russia, and war risks were taken in London. Great activity prevailed at the Woolwich arsenal, and in the

dock-yards the iron-clads were prepared for immediate service, while all soldiers on furlough in Ireland were ordered to join their regiments.

The Czar, in an address to the generals and officers of the Russian army, at a military review in St. Petersburg, on November 15, 1876, said: "Gentlemen, let us wish the best success to the commanders of our armies." The Czar's words were received with enthusiastic cheering. All freight traffic was stopped on the railways in South-western Russia. A Russian army was rapidly concentrating at Odessa. A Russian war loan of one hundred million roubles in bank notes was issued by the State Bank of St. Petersburg, by authority of an imperial ukase, to be received in subscriptions, bearing interest at ten per cent. The Czar, in an interview with Lord Loftus, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, on November 2, 1876, gave assurances that Russia would not seize Constantinople or attempt to conquer India.

In the meantime the Ottoman Porte had appointed a commission to frame a constitution for the Ottoman Empire. The commission concluded its labors in the latter part of November, 1876, and sent a draft of the document to the Grand Vizier. The text of the new constitution was communicated to the Great European Powers. The new constitution was officially promulgated with great solemnity, December 23, 1876. The constitution declared the Ottoman Empire one and indivisible, and provided for a legislative assembly comprising a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The principle of Ministerial responsibility was established. On November 23, 1876, the Sultan issued a firman abolishing slavery in the Turkish dominions.

In the meantime, while Russia and Turkey were making warlike demonstrations, preparations for the peace conference at Constantinople were being rapidly pushed. The British plenipotentiary, Lord Salisbury, while on his way to Constantinople, stopped at Paris and Rome, and had an interview with Prince Bismarck at Berlin. Lord

Salisbury also stopped at Vienna. Popular sentiment in England had compelled Lord Beaconsfield to reverse his policy on the Eastern question, and England was now in full accord with Russia on the guarantees to be required of the Ottoman Porte. France, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary also supported the Russian demands. An interview between Lord Salisbury and General Ignatieff showed a complete agreement between them on the points to be demanded of the Porte. At a preliminary meeting of the conference on December 11, 1876, under the presidency of the Russian ambassador, the result showed a unanimity among the plenipotentiaries of the Great European Powers. General Ignatieff appeared very conciliatory.

The conference began its regular sessions on December 23, 1876. The Turkish plenipotentiary, Safvet Pasha, presided; and in his opening address he declared that the Porte was ready to grant reforms to all its subjects. In all the proceedings of the conference the Great Powers were unanimous. Russia became more conciliatory and Turkey more defiant. The Porte rejected all the proposals of the European Powers, and met every proposition with a counter-proposal. It gradually became apparent that Midhat Pasha, the Grand Vizier, had outwitted the European diplomats. Lord Salisbury, in an interview with Midhat Pasha, urged him to accept the European proposals, but without success. In a subsequent interview between Lord Salisbury and the Sultan, the latter objected to the European demands; whereupon Lord Salisbury directed the British fleet to leave Turkish waters, in order to show the Turks that England would not support them in resisting the united will of Europe. On December 30, 1876, the armistice between Turkey and Servia was prolonged to March 1, 1877.

The Great Powers at length agreed to consider the Turkish counter-proposals. Russia receded from her original position; while Turkey appeared more defiant, and refused to discuss the European proposi-

tions. An angry interview occurred between Lord Salisbury and Midhat Pasha on January 2, 1877. On January 6, 1877, the conference refused to make any further concessions, while the Turks remained inflexible. The English, German and Russian plenipotentiaries unsuccessfully urged the Grand Vizier to accept the proposals of the European Powers. On January 12, 1877, Baron von Werther, the German plenipotentiary, declared that the Great Powers would make no further concessions to Turkey. On January 15, 1877, the European Powers relinquished many of the contested points; but Lord Salisbury, the British plenipotentiary, and Sir Henry George Elliott, the British ambassador at the Turkish capital, announced that they had orders to leave Constantinople if the Porte rejected the modified demands of the Powers. All the other European plenipotentiaries made similar declarations. Safvet Pasha, the Turkish plenipotentiary, replied that the conditions of the Powers would have to be submitted to the Porte before a final answer could be given.

On January 18, 1877, the Grand Council of the Ottoman Empire, among whom were sixty Christians, unanimously rejected the proposals of the European Powers, and declared that the Turkish counter-proposals were the only subject which would further be considered. The Council disregarded Midhat Pasha's appeal for peace, and replied with loud shouts of "War rather than foreign interference! Death before dishonor!" The result of the Turkish Grand Council's action was that Lord Salisbury and General Ignatieff refused to have anything further to do with the negotiations, and the plenipotentiaries of the Six Great European Powers accordingly withdrew from Constantinople. Thus the conference failed.

In the latter part of January, 1877, the Ottoman Porte opened negotiations for peace with Servia and Montenegro. Both Russia and England advised Prince Milan of Servia to make peace. Midhat Pasha offered conciliatory terms to the Servians, who for some time had been anxious for peace. The nego-

tiations progressed slowly, but were successfully completed in the early part of March, 1877.

Midhat Pasha's progressive policy and his desire for peace were very obnoxious to the reactionary party in Turkey, and caused his fall. On February 5, 1877, he was dismissed from office and banished from Constantinople by order of the Sultan, and Edhem Pasha was appointed Grand Vizier.

On February 4, 1877, Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, issued a circular note to the Russian ambassadors at the courts of the other Great Powers, declaring the Ottoman Empire a menace to Europe and to the sentiments of humanity and Christianity, and endeavoring to ascertain what course the other Powers intended to pursue in consequence of Turkey's defiant attitude.

In the meantime the public mind in England was intensely excited on the Eastern question. Mr. Gladstone made important speeches at Taunton and Frome, denouncing the course of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Derby in not taking vigorous measures to act in concert with Russia in putting a stop to the horrible atrocities of the Turks toward the Christian inhabitants of the Ottoman Empire. Parliament opened February 8, 1877; and the queen's speech alluded in guarded terms to the Eastern question, expressing a hope for a satisfactory solution of the vexed problem. On February 16, 1877, Mr. Gladstone and others made speeches criticising Lord Beaconsfield and his Ministry severely. The Ministry avowed its neutrality on the Eastern question. An animated debate occurred in the House of Lords on February 20, 1877. The Duke of Argyle attacked the policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry, but the Earl of Derby defended the Ministry's action. On a test vote, the House of Lords sustained Lord Beaconsfield's Cabinet.

During March, 1877, General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, visited the capitals of the other Great European Powers on a mission from the Czar, the result of which was the signing of a pro-

ocol consenting to Russia's intervention in Turkish affairs.

In the meantime both Russia and Turkey continued their warlike preparations. Russia was hurrying troops forward to the Pruth, and Turkish troops were moving toward the Danube. The Russians were still mobilizing an additional number of army corps on the frontiers; and by the close of February, 1877, there were two hundred thousand Russian troops ready to invade Turkish territory. The Turks had concentrated an army of about seventy-five thousand men on the Danube to resist Russian invasion. Both Russia and Turkey were buying arms and munitions of war in the United States. On March 3, 1877, an imperial ukase was issued at St. Petersburg directing the organization of nine additional army corps. About the middle of March, Russia was preparing to put one million men into the field.

The Turkish Parliament assembled March 19, 1877, and was opened by Sultan Abdul Hamid II. in person. The speech from the throne was read by the First Secretary of the Sultan. A considerable number of Senators and Deputies were present. The Sultan's speech recapitulated the events of the Eastern crisis, and indulged in a profusion of promises.

Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy and France readily signed the Russian protocol submitted for their acceptance by General Ignatieff during his mission to the great European capitals. England at first refused to sign; but, after much diplomatic negotiation, the efforts of General Ignatieff and Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador at London, were successful; and on March 31, 1877, Great Britain, through her Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Lord Derby, signified her acceptance of the protocol. Russia then submitted the protocol to the Ottoman Porte for its approval, but Turkey rejected the document as inconsistent with the dignity and independence of the Ottoman Empire.

Upon the rejection of the Russian protocol by the Ottoman Porte, the Czar Alexander II., who arrived at the Russian head-

quarters at Kischeneff on April 2, 1877, issued a manifesto reciting the grievances of the Christians in Turkey, arraigning the Ottoman Porte for obstinacy in resisting the European demands, and declaring his purpose of espousing the cause of the oppressed Christians in Turkey. At the same time Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, published a circular notifying the other Great Powers that, as Turkey had rejected every demand of Europe for the amelioration of the Christians in Turkey, Russia was obliged to undertake the amelioration of the Porte's Christian subjects.

On April 25, 1877, the Ottoman Porte replied to the Czar's manifesto, charging Russia with the design of attacking the independence of Turkey, and calling upon the other Great Powers to enforce the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. Sultan Abdul Hamid II. issued a patriotic address to his army, exhorting it to uphold the independence of the Osmanli and to defend the land won by their ancestors.

Immediately after the rejection of the Russian protocol by the Ottoman Porte, the Russian armies advanced into Turkish territory, both in Europe and Asia. The Russian Army of the Danube, three hundred and twenty-five thousand strong, under the command of the Grand-Duke Nicholas, advanced from Kischeneff, in South-western Russia, into the Sultan's tributary Principality of Roumania, which was friendly to Russia. At the same time the Russian Army of the Caucasus, one hundred and seventy-five thousand strong, under the Grand-Duke Michael and General Loris Melikoff, advanced from Alexandropol, in Georgia, into the Turkish province of Armenia, the Christian population of which was friendly to Russia.

Hostilities in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 began in Asiatic Turkey. The Russians under the Grand-Duke Michael were defeated by the Turks at Tchurukson, near Batoum, on the south-eastern coast of the Black Sea, near the Russian frontier, with the loss of eight hundred men, April 25, 1877. The Russians were again re-

pulsed at Batoum two days later, April 27, 1877. The Turkish navy bombarded Poti, Chefketil and Fort Nicholas, in Russian territory, on the eastern coast of the Black Sea.

General Loris Melikoff with forty thousand Russians advanced against Kars, and defeated sixty thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha before that strong fortress, April 29 and 30, 1877. The Russians captured Bayazid, at the foot of Mount Ararat, May 1, 1877; the Turkish garrison having evacuated the fortress. The Russians were repulsed in an attack on Batoum on May 11, 1877, with the loss of four thousand men.

Melikoff's operations were directed against Erzeroum, the capital of Armenia, which Mukhtar Pasha prepared to defend. The Russians captured Ardahan with its fortifications, its citadel, sixty cannon, immense stores of provisions and ammunition, after a fierce bombardment, May 17, 1877; the Turkish garrison having evacuated the town and fled, leaving their dead and wounded behind them.

In the meantime the Russians prosecuted the siege of Kars with vigor, but they were repulsed in two attacks on the fortress on May 8, 1877. The Turks were repulsed in an attack on the Cossacks at Kars, May 17, 1877. The Turkish garrison afterward silenced the Russian bombardment. The Russians cannonaded the Turkish outworks at Kars, May 20, 1877, but were repulsed by the Turkish garrison, which made a sortie. The Russians drove the Turks from their positions at Karadrhouran, near Kars, May 22, 1877. The Russians were again repulsed in two assaults on Kars on May 23, 1877. Four thousand Circassians under Mussa Pasha were surprised and cut to pieces by the Russians while marching toward Kars, May 31, 1877.

The Russians furiously cannonaded Batoum on May 23, 1877, but the Turkish batteries replied vigorously. The Russians attempted to throw a bridge over the river Tchuruk, at Batoum, May 25, 1877, but were fired upon and driven back by the Turks. The Russians occupied several of

the heights near Batoum with slight loss, May 28, 1877.

In the meantime the Circassian tribes in the Caucasus revolted against the Russians, but were defeated near Sukum-Kaleh and at other points. The Turkish fleet and the Circassians failed in an attack on Sukum-Kaleh; and one thousand Circassians were surprised and cut to pieces by the Russians, June 5, 1877.

The siege of Kars progressed vigorously throughout the month of June, 1877; and the Turks attempted to form counter approaches, and were constantly making sorties, but were frustrated in all their attempts by the Russian batteries. There was heavy fighting before Kars for four days, June 8-11, 1877; but the Russians were repulsed with heavy loss in all their attacks upon Forts Tahmaz and Kara-Dagh. The Russian force which had advanced against Erzeroum fell back in order to aid in the siege of Kars. The artillery engagements between the besiegers and the garrison of Kars continued during the middle and latter part of June.

Twelve thousand Russians under General Tergukasoff defeated ten thousand Turks under Mehemet Pasha at Zeidikan, after a two days' battle, June 15 and 16, 1877; the Turkish lines being raked by the Russian artillery fire and their losses being heavy, Mehemet Pasha himself being killed. The Russians then fortified Delibaba Pass, but were driven from that strong position by fourteen thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha after two days' fighting, June 21 and 22, 1877; the Turks winning their victory through their effective artillery fire, and their loss being over two thousand men, while the Russian loss was almost three thousand men. The Russians were repulsed in repeated assaults upon Mukhtar Pasha's position at Zewin with a loss of one thousand killed, June 29, 1877.

The Russians were repulsed in their attacks on Batoum on June 21, 1877, with a loss of fifteen hundred killed and wounded. A Turkish column drove the Russians behind their old intrenchments near Batoum,

June 29, 1877. A Turkish detachment defeated a thousand Russians near Van. The Russian garrison in Bayazid citadel was relieved by General Tergukasoff, who completely defeated the Turkish force of thirteen thousand men which had invested the citadel; but the town of Bayazid was destroyed.

The Turks made a grand sortie from Kars, June 30, 1877, and reopened communication with Mukhtar Pasha's army; while the Russian bombardment of Kars materially slackened. The Russian disasters in Armenia caused a retreat of the whole Russian line toward the frontier, thus raising the siege of Kars. The Russian left wing was almost annihilated; the Russian center was in full retreat; and the Russian right at Batoum was completely defeated. The Russians retreated with such precipitancy that they buried or concealed their artillery and destroyed immense quantities of provisions and baggage, while the roads were strewn with Russian dead. The Russians maintained their position in a battle at Ipek, July 4, 1877; but the garrison of Kars was reinforced, and a Russian detachment was routed in several engagements near the frontier. Thus the first campaign in Asiatic Turkey in the great war of 1877 ended in favor of the Ottoman arms.

A Turkish force landed at Tchamtchira, near Sukum-Kaleh, on the Circassian coast, but was defeated by fifteen thousand Russians, June 27, 1877. Both sides were subsequently reinforced; and the Turks routed the Russians with a loss of six thousand killed and wounded, while the Ottoman loss was comparatively small. Early in July, 1877, two Turkish frigates bombarded the Russian town of Chefketil, on the eastern coast of the Black Sea, and landed a force which defeated the garrison and drove it from the town; after which the frigates reëmbarked the Turkish troops. Several days afterward a Turkish frigate bombarded the Russian town of Simferopol, in the Crimea. On July 30, 1877, the Turkish frigate *Maumaudich* bombarded the Russian batteries at Tchamtchira, near Sukum-

Kaleh, silencing every Russian gun. The *Maumaudich* was considerably damaged, and several of her crew were killed and wounded. The six thousand Turks who had been in a critical position at Tchamchira were then embarked in the fleet of Hobart Pasha, an Englishman in the Turkish service.

The Montenegrins were still resisting the Turks under Suleiman Pasha and Mehemet Ali Pasha, and numerous bloody engagements were fought with various success. When the Turks inclosed Montenegro with three armies, seventy thousand strong in the aggregate, the Montenegrin position became extremely critical, and the Montenegrins were at the mercy of the Porte; but the Turkish army under Suleiman Pasha left the Montenegrin territory, and marched toward the Danube to aid Abdul Kerim Pasha and Osman Pasha in resisting the Russian advance in European Turkey. The Turks defeated the Bosnian insurgents in several conflicts. On August 4, 1877, eight thousand Turks defeated four thousand Herzegovinian insurgents under General Despotovich with great loss. General Despotovich and three hundred of his followers crossed the Austrian frontier, where they were disarmed and interned.

While the war was progressing with vigor in Armenia, the campaign on the Danube had not yet fairly opened. The Roumanians had joined the Russians, and had slight skirmishes with the Turks. There was also some skirmishing between small bodies of Cossacks and Bashi-Bazouks. The Turks bombarded Brahilov and Kalafat, while the Russians bombarded Rutschuk and Nicopolis. Slight collisions occurred at Oltenitza, Turtukai, Reni, Ghiacet and other points along the Danube; and several Turkish monitors were sunk by torpedoes.

From the beginning of the struggle the Sultan's tributary Principality of Roumania had sided with Russia; and on May 15, 1877, the Roumanian Senate and Chamber of Deputies proclaimed Roumania completely independent of Turkey, and declared war against the Porte.

By the close of May, 1877, the Russians occupied the north side of the Danube from Kalafat on the west to Galatz on the east; but their heaviest force was at Giurgevo, opposite Rutschuk. The Turkish forces south of the Danube numbered two hundred thousand men, and were under the command of Abdul Kerim Pasha. Their main force was at Shumla, near the Balkan mountains; but they occupied the south side of the Danube from Widdin, opposite Kalafat, on the west, to Ghiacet, opposite Galatz, on the east; and strong Turkish garrisons were placed in the four great fortresses on the south side of the Danube—Widdin, Nicopolis, Rutschuk and Silistria; while the other two strong fortresses in Bulgaria—Shumla, near the Balkan mountains, and Varna, on the Black Sea coast—were also strongly garrisoned with Turkish troops.

The condition of the Ottoman Empire was extremely critical at this period. The treasury was exhausted; public credit was destroyed; the armies were wretchedly organized and disciplined; the various Christian provinces were on the verge of rebellion; Roumania and Montenegro were at open war with the Porte; the Russian armies were in Roumania and Armenia; Servia and Greece were ready to join Russia in the war; the Porte was without a single ally; the Moslem population of the Turkish capital was turbulent; and the Turkish Ministry was at variance with the Turkish Parliament. The turbulent Softas threatened an outbreak at Constantinople; but the government expelled them from the capital, and declared the city in a state of siege. The Sheikh-ul-Islam proclaimed a "Holy War" against Russia. The Sultan prorogued the Turkish Parliament on June 28, 1877, to be reassembled October 1, 1877.

The other Great European Powers declared their neutrality. On May 7, 1877, Lord Derby's note in reply to Prince Gortschakoff's circular was published, accusing Russia of bad faith in regard to treaties. On the same day an animated debate began in the British House of Commons on Mr.

Gladstone's resolutions denying Turkey's right to moral or material support. Fiery speeches were made on both sides, but on May 14th these resolutions were rejected by a vote of three hundred and fifty-four against two hundred and twenty-three. Several large public demonstrations were held in London on the night of May 7th in support of Mr. Gladstone's resolutions.

Lord Beaconsfield's Cabinet was divided on the policy to be pursued by Great Britain on the Eastern question; but the Ministry was resolved to defend British interests—to protect the Suez Canal, to guard Egypt and to maintain the freedom of the Bosphorus. A great popular anti-Turkish demonstration was held at Birmingham on May 31st; and the meeting was addressed by Mr. Gladstone, who denounced the Ottoman Porte for its oppression of its Christian subjects. Business was suspended and thirty thousand persons were present. At the close of the meeting a resolution was passed in favor of a policy to compel Turkey to govern her Christian subjects properly.

On June 7, 1877, Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, in a note to Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, promised that Russia would not menace British interests in the East, and would not therefore seize Egypt, the Suez Canal, Constantinople, the Bosphorus or the Persian Gulf.

Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador at London, took with him to St. Petersburg a specification of British interests as contained in Mr. Cross's speech in the British House of Commons. Count Schouvaloff's instructions, on his return to London, empowered him to declare that Russia had no designs against the Suez Canal or Egypt. Russia promised England not to exercise belligerent rights in the Suez Canal; but Turkey refused to give a similar promise, and returned a haughty answer to England's demand not to make the canal a scene of hostilities. Count Schouvaloff's assurances were considered perfectly satisfactory by the British Cabinet, but a British fleet was

dispatched to Besika Bay to be ready for eventualities.

After an inactivity of nearly two months, the Russians opened an active campaign on the Danube. Rutschuk, on the south side of the river, was bombarded by the Russians; while Giurgevo, on the opposite side of the river, was bombarded by the Ottoman troops at Rutschuk. About the middle of June, 1877, the Russians massed their forces at several points on the Danube with the view of crossing the river; the principal movements being at Galatz, Hirsova, Sistova and Nicopolis. There were then over four hundred thousand Russian troops in Roumania. During the latter part of June there was heavy cannonading between Rutschuk and Giurgevo, and also between Widin and Kalafat. The Turks flooded the Kustendje and Tchernavoda railroad as a measure of defense.

On June 22, 1877, a Russian detachment of six thousand men under General Zimmermann crossed the Danube from Galatz into the swampy region of the Dobrudja; and on the same day this force gained possession of the heights around Matchin, after an obstinate engagement with a force of Bashi-Bazouks. The next day the Russians entered Matchin, which had been evacuated by the Ottoman troops. Twenty-eight thousand Russians crossed the Danube at Brahilov; while the Turks destroyed the railway between Tchernavoda and Matchin, and a few days later evacuated the Dobrudja.

Simultaneously with the Russian crossing at Galatz there was a general movement along the whole Russian line, and the various towns on the south side of the Danube were bombarded by the Russians. On June 25th eighteen thousand Russians crossed the Danube at Hirsova and joined the detachment at Matchin. On June 26th the Russians were repulsed in an attack upon the Ottoman troops at Turtukai, on the Danube, above Silistria. On June 27th the Grand-Duke Nicholas of Russia crossed the Danube near Sistova with the eighth Russian army corps, drove the Turks from Sistova and occupied the town, after dreadful

fighting. During the bombardment, Nicopolis was partly burned. On June 28th the Czar Alexander II. issued a proclamation to the Bulgarians, promising protection to Christians and Mussulmans alike. On June 29th a Russian division crossed the Danube at Flamunda, after desperate fighting, at which the Czar of Russia was present. The Russians also crossed the Danube at Turnu-Maguerelli, and joined the force of the Grand-Duke Nicholas at Sistova.

During the latter part of June, 1877, the bombardment of Rutschuk by the Russians at Giurgevo, opposite the river, was terrible, and laid most of the town in ruins. During the bombardment Russian shells struck the English, French, German and Austro-Hungarian consulates. Hundreds of non-combatants were killed in the streets, and many of the inhabitants of the city fled in terror to the neighboring villages. At the same time the Turkish garrison at Rutschuk bombarded Giurgevo and destroyed much of that town.

After crossing the Danube, the Russians advanced in several detachments southward through Bulgaria toward the Balkan mountains. The Russians were routed at Biela with considerable loss, July 5, 1877. After two days' fighting, the Russians were beaten at Plevna by Osman Pasha, and at Monastir by Ahmed Eyoub Pasha, July 14, 1877. The advanced guard of the Russian army under General Gourkho crossed the Balkans on the evening of July 13th, and routed the Turks two days later. Nicopolis with its Turkish garrison of six thousand men surrendered to the Russians, July 16, 1877.

General Gourkho's bold dash across the Balkans created alarm and consternation at Constantinople, and the Porte made vigorous preparations to check the Russian advance. Abdul Kerim Pasha was superseded in the chief command of the Turkish armies by Mehemet Ali Pasha, a Prussian by the name of Schultz. There were four Turkish armies in European Turkey ready to oppose the Russian invaders—Osman Pasha's army at Widdin, and Mehmet Ali Pasha's force at Shumla, both north of the

Balkans; and the armies under Suleiman Pasha and Raouf Pasha, south of the Balkans.

The Cossacks burned four villages near Philippopolis about the middle of July. The Russians occupied Jeni-Saghra after a brilliant victory. General Gourkho occupied Kazanlik on July 17th, after an obstinate engagement. The Shipka Pass was captured by the Russians, July 18th. After a desperate engagement of ten hours at Plevna, July 19, 1877, the Russians under General Schillder were utterly defeated and driven from their positions by the Ottoman force under Osman Pasha, losing two thousand men and fleeing from the field, leaving their dead and wounded behind them. In view of this defeat, the Russians removed their head-quarters from Tirnova to Biela.

On July 24th there was sharp fighting at Silistria, which the Russians had completely invested. During the whole of July the Russians closely invested and vigorously besieged Rutschuk, which was fiercely bombarded, people being daily killed in the streets; but the Turkish garrison held out heroically. On July 26th the Russian merchant ship *Vesta* defeated a Turkish monitor in the Black Sea, off Kustendje, in Bulgaria.

In the meantime heavy fighting occurred south of the Balkans. Raouf Pasha occupied Eski-Saghra, after a two days' battle, July 27, 1877. Suleiman Pasha was defeated and routed at Karabunar, July 26th; but he defeated and routed the Russians with considerable loss at Jeni-Saghra, August 4th.

On July 30, 1877, forty thousand Russians under Prince Schackoskoy and General Krudener attacked Osman Pasha's army of fifty thousand men in its strong position at Plevna, and captured the Turkish positions; but the effective fire of the Turkish artillery carried destruction through the Russian ranks; and at the close of the day the Ottoman troops recaptured all their lost positions, and the Russians were disastrously defeated. The battle was renewed the next day, July 31, 1877, and the Rus-

sians were again defeated and routed. They fled from the field, leaving five thousand dead and wounded behind them. The Bashi-Bazouks took possession of the field and massacred the Russian wounded. This disastrous defeat thwarted the Russian plans and put the Russian forces south of the Balkans in a critical position.

Five thousand Ottoman cavalry were repulsed in an attack upon the Russians at Lascon, near Plevna, August 6, 1877. On August 7th the Turks repulsed the Russians at Lovatz, after two days' fighting, the Russians losing nine hundred killed and wounded. On the same day the Turks repulsed two attacks of the Russians at Jaslar, south of Rasgrad, after sanguinary fighting. On August 9th the Turks repulsed an attack of a Russian infantry and cavalry force at Vaillak. On August 11th the Turks under Rassam Pasha retook Kartova from the Bulgarians, and the next day captured Kalofer, the Bulgarians fleeing into the Balkans after losing five hundred killed.

In the meantime there had been mutual charges of cruelty on both sides. The Turks were charged with the most brutal massacres of men, women and children among the Christian population of Bulgaria; and these charges were sustained by European newspaper correspondents. On the other hand, the Turks accused the Russians and Bulgarians of massacring women and children among the Mohammedan Turks; and the accusations were also sustained by foreign newspaper correspondents. The excuses of the Bulgarians for these brutal massacres of innocent Turkish women and children were the Turkish outrages in Bulgaria during the spring and summer of 1876.

The Greeks in the island of Candia, or Crete, maddened by Turkish tyranny and cruelty, rose in revolt, compelling the Turks to seek refuge in the fortresses of the island.

England took vigorous precautionary measures in view of the Russian advance toward Constantinople. The British fleet at Besika Bay was reinforced, and British troops were sent to reinforce the garrisons of Gibraltar and Malta. The greatest activ-

ity prevailed in the dockyards of Great Britain, and orders were received at the Woolwich arsenal to have field guns of the reserve class and some larger ordnance equipped for service. At the prorogation of the British Parliament on August 4, 1877, the queen's speech, in alluding to the Eastern question, contained these significant words: "If, in the course of the contest, the rights of my empire should be assailed or endangered, I should confidently rely on your help to vindicate and maintain them." Russia was intensely exasperated at England's course, and the Russian press manifested a hostile tone toward Great Britain.

Public feeling was intensely excited in Austria-Hungary; the Hungarians, who sympathized with the Turks, being greatly alarmed at the Russian invasion of Bulgaria; and the Austro-Hungarian Cabinet under Count Andrassy contemplated the mobilization of the Austro-Hungarian army.

In the meantime the Russians had pressed the siege of Rutschuk with vigor, and fiercely bombarded the town; while the Turks furiously bombarded Giurgevo, opposite the river. About the middle of August the Turks bombarded Kustendje and compelled the Russians to evacuate the town, but the Russians reoccupied Kustendje several days afterward. On August 13th the Turks defeated and routed the Russians at Tokoi, capturing five cannon. On August 17th a Russian reconnoitering party was repulsed near the river Lom. On August 20th detachments of Russian cavalry were repulsed by Ottoman troops at Nere-insk, near Pievna.

Toward the close of July, 1877, operations were resumed in Armenia, the Russians having been heavily reinforced. Fighting was renewed near Kars, and on August 4th a Turkish cavalry force of one thousand men was defeated by a Russian detachment near Ardahan. On August 5th the Turks assumed the offensive, and the Russian outposts were driven in by Kurds and Bashi-Bazouks; but the Ottoman troops were repulsed in an attack on the Russians at Khal-falut. On August 8th the Russians were

repulsed in two attacks on the Turks at Kaduklar. On August 11th several hundred Russians were killed in an ambuscade near Koule. On August 12th the Russian outposts near Ani were defeated with a loss of one hundred killed. On August 13th there was an artillery duel at Batoum.

During the last fortnight of August, 1877, the Russians suffered a series of calamitous defeats in Armenia. On August 18th forty thousand Russians attacked Mukhtar Pasha's army at Yanilar, but were repulsed and routed with the loss of fifteen hundred killed. On the night of August 24th Mukhtar's Pasha's army carried the heights of Kizil-Tepe by storm, and repulsed three attempts of the Russians to retake them. The battle continued the whole of the next day, August 25, 1877, and ended in the rout of the Russians with the loss of four thousand killed and wounded; but the Ottoman army was disastrously repulsed in an attempt to retake Kuruk-Dara, losing three thousand men, while the Russians lost less than a thousand. On August 24th the Turks captured a redoubt near Batoum. At the beginning of September, 1877, General Loris Melikoff was superseded in the command of the Russian army in Armenia by the Grand-Duke Michael.

In the meantime terrible fighting occurred in European Turkey. After its disastrous defeat at Eski-Saghra at the close of July, 1877, General Gourkho's army was obliged to retreat northward toward the Balkans, closely pursued by Suleiman Pasha's victorious army, thirty thousand strong. For eight days, August 21-28, 1877, Suleiman Pasha vainly attempted to force the Shipka Pass, which was gallantly held by the Russians under General Radetzky; all the Turkish assaults being repulsed with heavy loss to the assailants, after the most desperate fighting; though the Russians evacuated, and the Turks occupied, the town of Shipka, on the 24th, August, 1877. The Russians remained in possession of the Shipka Pass; and, after a lull of three days, cannonading was renewed on September 1 and 2, 1877.

The Turks were repulsed in attacks on the Russians at Tirnova, August 22 and 23, 1877. Osman Pasha's troops were repulsed at Selvi, August 22d. On the same day Mehemet Ali Pasha's army defeated the Russians near Eski-Djuma, taking several cannon and inflicting great loss upon their foes; but the Russians retook Jaslar, which the Turks had captured; and the next day the Russians repulsed three attacks of the Turks, but fled upon the arrival of Turkish reinforcements, and left the Turks in possession of the place.

On August 30, 1877, twenty thousand Turks from Mehemet Ali Pasha's army attacked the Russians near Karahassankoi; and after desperate fighting, during which the village was taken and retaken, the Russians were defeated, and they fled in disorder, with the loss of four thousand killed and wounded, a cannon and two thousand stand of small arms.

On September 1, 1877, a part of Osman Pasha's army made a reconnoissance against the Russian fortified positions at Pelistat, five miles east from Plevna; and, after a desperate engagement, in which all the Turkish attacks were repulsed, the Russians, who numbered twenty thousand, defeated and routed the Turks, who fled with the loss of two thousand killed and wounded.

On September 3, 1877, the Turks at Lovatz attacked twenty thousand Russians before that town under Prince Imeritinsky and General Skobeleff; but, after desperate fighting, the Russians drove the Turks into the town, which they entered with them; and the struggle continued in the streets of Lovatz until the Ottoman troops were finally driven out of the town in great disorder, pursued by the Russian cavalry, thus leaving Lovatz in the undisputed possession of the Russians after twelve hours' fighting.

On September 4, 1877, the Turks under Ahmed Eyoub Pasha occupied Kadikoi, near Rutschuk, but were driven out the same day with great loss by a force of Russian infantry and Cossacks. The next day Ahmed Eyoub Pasha attacked the Russians at Kazelova, near Rutschuk, and drove them

from their fortified positions after a desperate battle of five hours, compelling them to recross the Lom with the loss of three thousand men, while the Ottoman loss was only one thousand. On the same day fighting occurred before Rutschuk, after which the Russians fiercely bombarded the city from Slobosia, the Turkish batteries replying briskly.

After a heavy artillery duel of two days at Plevna, the Russians gained possession of the heights south of that town, on the evening of September 8, 1877. The cannonade continued that night and the next few days; and on the 11th the Russians captured the Grivitza redoubt and other positions, after a desperate struggle; but the next day, September 12, 1877, after the Russians under General Skobelev had repulsed six Turkish assaults, the tide of battle was again turning in favor of the Turks, who recaptured all their lost positions except Grivitza. The Russians continued their bombardment of the Turkish fortifications. During this six days' fighting at Plevna the Russians lost seven thousand men killed and wounded.

On September 20, 1877, the Russians under Count Stackelberg dispersed three squadrons of Turkish cavalry near Raschita, but withdrew on the approach of Turkish infantry. The next day the Russians under Colonel Totleben routed ten battalions of Ottoman cavalry with artillery, and two regiments of Ottoman cavalry near Temin, by opening an artillery fire upon them, but afterward retired to a post of observation.

Mehemet Ali Pasha's army was repulsed in all its assaults upon the Czarewitch's army at Biela, September 21, 1877, the loss being heavy on both sides; and Mehemet Ali Pasha afterward retreated to his former positions on the Lom. The next day, September 22, 1877, Hifsi Pasha defeated fifteen Russian battalions near Dubnik; and he entered Plevna a few days afterward with fresh supplies of provisions and ammunition.

About this time the Montenegrins gained a series of successes over the Turks, captur-

ing a number of strongholds, and becoming masters of the Duga Pass on September 20th. Early in October a force of Bashi-Bazouks and two thousand Turkish cavalry arrived at Mostar, where ten thousand Ottoman troops were concentrating to recover the territory captured by the Montenegrins. On November 9th Prince Nicholas called all Montenegrins to arms. The Montenegrins conducted the campaign vigorously in November.

By the beginning of October, 1877, the incessant and destructive Russian bombardment of Rutschuk had laid that town in ruins. Early in October, Raouf Pasha superseded Suleiman Pasha in command of the Turkish army of the Balkans, and Suleiman Pasha succeeded Mehmet Ali Pasha in command of the Turkish army of the Lom.

On October 7th a Turkish force defeated a Russian detachment near Orchanie. On October 11th fifteen hundred Hungarians invaded Roumania to aid the Turks, but recrossed the frontier the next day. For three days, October 12-14, 1877, the Russians bombarded Sulina, at the mouth of the Danube, and destroyed a part of that town, but were eventually driven off.

During the latter part of September and throughout October and November, 1877, the Russians, under the direction of General Todleben, the hero of Sevastopol, closely besieged Osman Pasha's army at Plevna. The Russian bombardment was violent and effective. The Roumanians captured the second Grivitza redoubt on October 19th, after being twice repulsed; but the Turks recaptured the redoubt during the night, after a sanguinary struggle. The Turks then constructed a new interior line of formidable defenses. Osman Pasha ordered all irregular Circassians, Bulgarians and non-combatant Mohammedans to leave Plevna.

After a desperate engagement on October 24th, the Russian Imperial Guards and a detachment under General Gourkho captured the Turkish positions at Dubnik, near Plevna, with three thousand Ottoman infantry and a regiment of cavalry, four can-

non and a quantity of ammunition; the Turks losing four thousand killed and wounded and seven thousand prisoners, among whom were two Pashas; while the Russian loss was three thousand killed and wounded. Chefket Pasha fled with twelve battalions.

Near the close of October the Russians established a strong force west of Plevna; and a portion of the Russian Imperial Guards crossed the Vid between Nicopolis and Plevna, passing around Osman Pasha's left. General Gourkho's cavalry crossed the Upper Vid west of Lovatz, swept the Orchanie road, got in communication with the force coming from the north, and made a successful attack on the Turks under Hifsi Pasha, while a heavy cannonade was simultaneously opened along the entire line on the east of Plevna. In the meantime the Turks had conveyed large quantities of provisions into Plevna. The Russian Imperial Guards took up positions on the Russian left, thus gradually extending the line of investment across the Lovatz road to the Sophia road. The Russians were continually receiving reinforcements.

On October 28th a Russian detachment carried the Turkish position at Teliche, west of Plevna, capturing a Pasha, several officers and several companies of Turkish troops and three cannon. On October 31st the Turks under Chefket Pasha were repulsed in an effort to retake Teliche after a conflict at Radomirze, and fled in great disorder. On the same day Gorny Dubnik was evacuated by the Turks and occupied by the Russians. On November 1st the Russians under General Kanzeff captured Dae-Tetewen, north-east of Orchanie, where there were seven large and thirty small positions. The Russians seized a large quantity of provisions, tools for intrenchments, cartridges and a herd of cattle. The Russians were also intrenching in new positions toward Orchanie; and Chefket Pasha retreated, fighting, toward Orchanie. By the early part of November the Russians had completely invested Plevna, and the siege was closely pressed.

Toward the close of October, 1877, the Turkish Army of the Lom under Suleiman

Pasha retreated to Rasgrad, left a detachment at Kadikoi, and intrenched itself so as to cover Rutschuk and to withstand any attack by the Russian army under the Czarewitch. The Czarewitch pushed forward toward Rasgrad, leaving one corps to operate against Rutschuk. On October 26th twelve Russian battalions, with cavalry and artillery, attacked the defenses of Rutschuk. The Turks made a sortie, and forced the Russians to retire behind their intrenchments. Four Russian divisions were repulsed in an attack on the Turkish line on the Lom, with a loss of eight hundred killed and some prisoners.

Near the end of October, 1877, the Turks recommenced a vigorous bombardment of the Russian positions in the Shipka Pass, and silenced one Russian battery. The bombardment was maintained for several weeks.

On November 4th the Russians under General Skobelev pushed on to Brestovec, south of Plevna, threw up batteries there, and, after a violent cannonade, attacked the Turkish position, but were unsuccessful. On November 9th a Russian detachment captured Vratza, between Plevna and Sophia, with several thousand wagons and a large quantity of stores. On November 11th and 12th the Turks attempted to surprise General Skobelev's positions, but were repulsed. Osman Pasha lost from two hundred to three hundred men daily from the constant salvos of the Russian artillery. Osman Pasha was diligently engaged in constructing new fortifications. On November 16th the Russians were repulsed in attacks on the Turkish positions near Orchanie. On November 17th a detachment of Russian infantry and Cossacks drove the Turks out of Rosalie Pass by turning their fortified positions on Moragai-Dagh. The Turkish camp there was captured. On the nights of November 16th and 17th General Skobelev was wounded by fragments of shells. The Russians maintained an incessant bombardment on the Turkish positions at Plevna.

In the meantime the war had been pro-

gressing with vigor in Armenia and in the Caucasus region. In September, 1877, an insurrection broke out in the Russian province of Daghestan, on the west side of the Caspian Sea. The insurgents were defeated by Russian troops on September 23d and 24th. On September 30th and October 3d the Russians inflicted crushing defeats upon the insurgents, but the revolt continued for several months.

On October 2, 1877, the Russians, under General Loris Melikoff, acting under the orders of the Grand-Duke Michael, attacked and captured Mukhtar Pasha's position at Great Yanilar, on the Armenian frontier, twelve miles east of Kars; but the Russians were repulsed in their assaults on Kizil-Tepe and Little Yanilar. The Turks captured Kuruk-Dara and carried Glade-Dagh by storm, and routed the Russians with a loss of three thousand killed and wounded, the Turkish loss being about the same. The Turks repulsed all the Russian assaults the next day and remained in possession of the battle-field. The Russians evacuated Great Yanilar during that night, October 3, 1877, and the Turks reoccupied it on the 4th; but all of Mukhtar Pasha's assaults were repulsed by the deadly artillery fire of the Russians, each side losing about twenty-five hundred killed and wounded.

In consequence of the Russian advance, the Turks evacuated Kizil-Tepe, Sarbatan and their other positions during the night of October 8th; and those strongholds were then occupied by the Russians, the Turks retiring to the summit of Aladja-Dagh, where the Russians were finally repulsed and routed in a great battle the next afternoon, October 9, 1877.

On October 14th a Russian division under General Lazaroff moved south of Aladja-Dagh, drove the Turks from Orlok upon Vezinskoi and Kars, and occupied Orlok, thus completely turning Mukhtar Pasha's right wing. The next morning, October 15, 1877, the Russians opened a heavy cannonade upon Olya-Tepe, the chief of the Turkish positions. In the afternoon ten thousand Russians under General Heymann

carried Olya-Tepe by assault, cutting the Turkish army in two. The Ottoman center and left wing, under Mukhtar Pasha himself, retreated to Kars, pursued by General Heymann, and harassed on the flank by General Lazaroff. Mukhtar Pasha found refuge behind the fortifications of Kars, after a terrible rout, during which he lost many killed and wounded, several thousand prisoners and four cannon. The Turkish right, eighteen thousand strong, had in the meantime been surrounded and attacked, and, after being driven from their fortified camp with heavy loss, were compelled to surrender with forty cannon. Mussa Pasha and a son of Schamyl, the famous Circassian chief, were among the killed on the Turkish side. Thus all the advantages that the Turks had gained in Armenia during the summer were lost by the second battle of Aladja-Dagh.

After their brilliant victory over Mukhtar Pasha's army, the Russians under General Heymann marched against Erzeroum, the Armenian capital; and another Russian force under General Lazaroff marched against the Turkish army under Ismail Pasha; while a large Russian detachment invested Kars, which now withstood another siege. The Russians were repulsed in an assault upon Fort Ahenz, at Kars, October 16, 1877. Kars was again bombarded by the Russians, and a part of the city was set on fire. The Turkish armies under Mukhtar Pasha and Ismail Pasha effected a junction near the close of October; and the united forces were hastily falling back toward Erzeroum, before the advancing Russian army under General Heymann. Erzeroum was preparing for a siege. The Russian forces under Generals Heymann and Tergukassoff effected a junction near Hassan-Kaleh, near which place Mukhtar and Ismail Pashas occupied a strong position. After occupying Koprikoi on October 28th, when the Turkish rear-guard hastily retreated to Hassan-Kaleh, the Russian cavalry continued the pursuit, attacked the Turkish bivouac two hours after midnight, compelled the Turks to flee, and pursued them more than three miles.

Mukhtar Pasha's great defeat in the second battle of Aladja-Dagh broke the power of the Turks in Armenia. The Russian forces under Generals Heymann and Tergukassoff were concentrated at Deve-Boyun, near Erzeroum, where Mukhtar and Ismail Pashas' united armies were encamped. The Russians attacked the Ottoman positions at Deve-Boyun, November 5, 1877; and, after a severe battle of ten hours, the Turks were driven from their positions with the loss of twenty-five hundred killed, wounded and prisoners, besides their camp, artillery, arms and provisions.

On October 28th General Loris Melikoff summoned Manni Pasha, the Turkish commandant at Kars, to surrender the fortress within twenty-four hours. A council of Turkish officers immediately rejected the demand for surrender, and resolved to defend the town to the last extremity. On November 5th the Russians under General Loris Melikoff occupied a position in front of the south-eastern forts of Kars, for the purpose of erecting siege batteries. The Turks attacked the Russians, supported by a fire from the forts, but were repulsed by the Russians, who pursued them into Fort Hafiz Pasha at the point of the bayonet, inflicted great loss upon them, spiked the guns and took some prisoners. After prolonged fighting near Kars, on November 14th, the Russians were repulsed.

On November 9th the Russians under General Heymann attacked the Turkish redoubts south-east of Erzeroum, and a battle of eleven hours followed. The Russians took Fort Azizie, but were afterward forced to abandon it. The Russians were repulsed and driven toward Deve-Boyun, pursued by the Turks. The Russians rallied, and drove back the Turks; but they were again forced to fall back to Deve-Boyun before a superior Ottoman force. Besides six hundred killed and wounded, the Russians lost a large quantity of arms and ammunition, but took over five hundred prisoners. On November 14th the Russians recaptured Fort Azizie, but were immediately driven from the fort. The inhabitants of Erzeroum par-

ticipated in these conflicts. The combined Russian armies under Generals Heymann and Tergukassoff, then before Erzeroum, numbered twenty-five thousand men.

The Russians under General Loris Melikoff and the Grand-Duke Michael carried Kars by storm on Sunday morning, November 18, 1877. On the previous evening fifteen thousand Russians climbed the steep rocks, ramparts and walls, and attacked an equal number of Turks, who fought desperately. The Kanli-Tabia, the citadel, the three towers, and Forts Hafiz Pasha, Kara-Dagh and Suiwarri, were all carried by assault in the morning, after a bloody struggle during the whole night. The garrisons of the Arab-Tabia and the Tchamak-Tabia resisted until morning, when they evacuated the forts and fled toward Erzeroum, but were pursued and overtaken by Russian dragoons and Cossacks, and were brought back as prisoners. The city and fortress of Kars, with three hundred cannon, stores and ammunition were then in the possession of the Russians. The Turks lost five thousand killed and wounded, ten thousand prisoners and many flags. The Russians lost about twenty-five hundred men. Among the Russian killed were Count Grabbe, General Belinsky and Lieutenant-Colonel Melikoff. General Loris Melikoff entered the city at eleven o'clock in the morning, Sunday, November 18, 1877. He immediately marched with fifteen thousand men for Erzeroum; and Mukhtar Pasha was summoned to surrender that city, but he refused.

Early in November, 1877, a conspiracy was discovered in Constantinople to depose Sultan Abdul Hamid II. and to restore his deposed brother, ex-Sultan Amurath V., to the Turkish throne; and forty-eight conspirators were arrested, forty of whom were strangled. About the same time four hundred prominent Bulgarians, including the Messrs. Geshoff, wealthy merchants, were sentenced to exile in Asia Minor. They started in chains, under a strong escort, on November 9th.

At the banquet of the newly inaugurated Lord Mayor of London, at the Guildhall,

on November 9, 1877, Lord Beaconsfield, in reply to a toast, as Her Majesty's Minister, declared in strong terms that the British government unswervingly adhered to the declaration they made at the commencement of the Eastern war, that British neutrality must cease if British interests were assailed or menaced.

On November 16th a council over which the Sultan presided was held at Constantinople. The general feeling expressed by all present, and by none more strongly than by the Sultan himself, was in favor of peace. Though great distrust at Russia's declarations was manifested, and although a desire for the termination of the war was expressed, the necessity for a vigorous resistance was fully recognized by all the members of the council. Several weeks later Turkey made an unsuccessful effort to obtain mediation through Austria-Hungary. The greatest despondency prevailed at the Turkish capital. Great excitement prevailed at Constantinople when the reserves were called out to maintain order in the Turkish provinces and the capital.

On November 28th Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, received a deputation representing several political societies headed by Lord Strathden Campbell, who presented a memorial urging active intervention in favor of Turkey. Lord Derby replied that the British government saw no reason to depart from its neutrality. He did not think Constantinople or the Suez Canal in danger. When the British government, he said, saw a reasonable opportunity it would do what it could to bring about peace. Lord Derby's speech made a good impression in Russia.

On November 19th there was heavy fighting on the Lom, near Rutschuk, between portions of the armies of the Czarewitch and Mehemet Ali Pasha. A Turkish force, making a reconnoissance, carried the Russian positions on the Metchka Heights, at Pirgos, near Rutschuk, and near Jovanchiftlich, destroying seventy caissons filled with ammunition and provisions at Pirgos. The Russians lost fourteen hundred men.

The Roumanians captured Rahova, a small town north-west of Plevna, on the morning of November 21st, after a three days' engagement. The Turks fled toward Lom-Palanka and Widdin, pursued by the Roumanians. Simultaneously with the capture of Rahova, a Roumanian division crossed the Danube opposite that town.

A Russian detachment of one regiment of infantry and one of cavalry was annihilated by the Turks at Nevesich, November 22, 1877; the entire Russian cavalry regiment except six men being destroyed, and two pieces of cannon and a number of prisoners being taken by the victorious Turks. The Roumanians took the strong position of Provitz on November 23d, after two days' fighting. The Turks evacuated Orchanie on November 25th; and on the same day the Russians captured the fortified town of Etropoli, about twenty miles north of the Balkans, the Turks fleeing in the greatest disorder. On November 26th the Turks attacked the Twelfth Russian Army Corps at Terstenik and Metchka; but, after a severe conflict, the Turks were repulsed with heavy loss. The Russians repulsed simultaneous demonstrations by the Turks against Polomarka and Kazelova.

On December 3, 1877, a Turkish detachment defeated a Russian detachment at Armedi, on the Tirnova road. Suleiman Pasha's army attacked and defeated the Russians under Prince Mirsky with the loss of three thousand killed and wounded near Elena, nineteen miles south-west of Tirnova, capturing Elena with eleven cannon, twenty ammunition wagons and three hundred prisoners. Fighting was renewed the next day without any important result. A few days later a Turkish division crossed the Lom and captured Popkoi.

On Sunday, December 9, 1877, Osman Pasha made a sortie from Plevna, in order to break through the Russian line of investment; but, after a severe engagement, Osman Pasha, who was severely wounded, surrendered unconditionally to the Russians. The number of prisoners taken by the Russians at the surrender of Plevna was forty

thousand, exclusive of twenty thousand sick and wounded. After the surrender of Plevna, the Czar Alexander II. placed his own carriage and escort at Osman Pasha's disposal. The Russian and Roumanian armies made a grand triumphal entry into Plevna at half-past three in the afternoon of the following day, December 10, 1877.

Intelligence of the fall of Plevna caused great rejoicings in St. Petersburg and dismay in Constantinople; and the Ottoman Porte issued a circular to the European Powers, intimating its readiness to treat for peace on the basis of the proposals of the Constantinople Conference the previous winter; but all the Great Powers refused to meditate. Russia insisted upon Turkey treating with her directly, and intimated that mediation would only make the terms more severe. Great discontent prevailed among the populace of the Turkish capital, and seditious placards were frequently found. The Turkish Parliament reassembled on December 13, 1877; and the Sultan, in his speech from the throne, alluded at some length to the reforms lately granted to his subjects by the new Turkish constitution.

The fall of Plevna encouraged Servia to declare war against Turkey on December 14, 1877; and the next day Prince Milan issued a proclamation at Belgrade, recounting the Turkish atrocities and violations of the treaty of peace between Turkey and Servia signed in February, 1877, and calling upon the Servian army to move forward in the name of Servian independence. Prince Milan immediately started for Alexinatz, and the Servian army crossed the Turkish frontier at Pirot and marched against Kossova. The Servians destroyed the Shetchina bridge on December 21st, after a severe engagement. On December 22d the Ottoman Porte issued a proclamation deposing Prince Milan. On December 24th the Servians captured Ak-Palanka with three Krupp guns and a large quantity of ammunition and provisions, after a severe battle. Thirty thousand Servians, with one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, were investing Nissa; while the Servian forces under Gen-

erals Leschjanin and Benitzki occupied Leskovatz and Kurschumlje, capturing a quantity of cattle and provisions. The Servians cannonaded Pirot and Novi-Bazar, but were repulsed. They, however, captured Pirot on December 28th.

On December 26th the Montenegrins defeated a Turkish detachment which occupied intrenched positions near Dulcigno, capturing many prisoners, three flags and a quantity of provisions. Near the close of December the Russian steamer *Russland*, commanded by Adjutant Baranoff, returned to Sevastopol from a cruise in the Bosphorus, bringing as a prize the Turkish transport *Messina* with seven hundred Ottoman troops on board as prisoners.

On December 31, 1877, the Russians under General Gourkho defeated the Turks at Taskeseu, twenty-five miles from Sophia, capturing the Turkish intrenchments, and losing seven hundred killed and wounded. At nightfall the Turks retreated toward Sophia, pursued by the Russian cavalry. After a short rest, General Gourkho resumed his advance upon Sophia, and defeated the Turks at Bogrov with the loss of one thousand killed, January 2, 1878; and the next day the victorious Russians entered Sophia. A few days later the Russians under General Radetzky crossed the Balkans through the Shipka Pass, the Turks having previously evacuated their positions because of the severe cold. On January 9, 1878, the Russian forces under Generals Radetzky and Skobeleff defeated and captured the whole Turkish army of twelve thousand men in the Shipka Pass. At the same time the Russians drove the Turks from the Trojan Pass, in the Balkans, and marched against Adrianople, the second city of the Ottoman Empire.

The rapid progress of the Russians spread consternation among the Mussulman population of Bulgaria and Roumelia; and one hundred and fifty thousand panic-stricken fugitives, mostly women and children, crowded into Constantinople, many of them perishing from hunger and cold, fifteen thousand being in the snow at Chorlon.

After four days of severe fighting at Philippopolis, the Russians under General Gourkko defeated Suleiman Pasha's army of forty thousand men, January 18, 1878, driving it into the Rhodope mountains with the loss of four thousand killed, three thousand prisoners and ninety-seven cannon, while the Russians lost over two thousand killed and wounded.

The Russians under General Radetzky entered Adrianople, January 30, 1878; and both Generals Radetzky and Gourkko rapidly advanced toward Constantinople, where the greatest consternation prevailed. Great Britain and Austria-Hungary became alarmed at the rapid approach of the Russians to Constantinople, and both those Powers showed warlike signs.

On January 7, 1878, the Turks under Hafiz Pasha occupied Kurschumlje, thirty-five miles north-west of Nissa, after two days of sanguinary fighting with the Servians, whose loss was considerable. Another Turkish force under Eyoub Pasha defeated the Servians at Novi-Bazar, pursued them to the frontier, burned six of their military stations, and destroyed their intrenchments. But, after five days of fierce fighting at Nissa, the Servians captured Goritz and Venick and all the heights commanding the town, on January 9 and 10, 1878, in consequence of which Nissa surrendered to the Servians the next day, January 11, 1878. The Servians also took Vranja, and on January 20th they captured Pristina. They also reoccupied Kurschumlje, after an engagement in which the Turks lost over eight hundred killed, wounded and prisoners. The Servians and Roumanians invested and besieged the strong fortress of Widdin, on the Danube. By January 20th the Roumanians occupied Florentin, thus completing the investment of Widdin. The Roumanian bombardment set fire to Fort Belgradschik, in Widdin. Forty thousand Servians defeated the Turks with heavy loss near Ratscharnik, January 28, 1878, after a battle of four days.

After a vigorous siege, Antivari surrendered unconditionally to the Montenegrins,

January 10, 1878. After a violent bombardment, the Montenegrins captured three fortified islands in Lake Scutari, January 26, 1878. About the middle of January, 1878, a Turkish fleet bombarded and destroyed the Russian ports of Eupatoria and Yatta, in the Crimea.

In the meantime Greece assumed a warlike attitude toward Turkey. The peace Ministry at Athens was succeeded by a war Cabinet about the middle of January, 1878, which called the National Guard of Greece to arms; and much anxiety prevailed in the Greek army and navy. Six hundred Greeks immediately entered Turkish territory; and a Greek insurrection at once broke out in Thessaly, Epirus and Macedonia. The cessation of hostilities between Russia and Turkey caused great excitement and consternation in Athens, where a furious mob attacked the houses of the Cabinet Ministers on January 26th, broke the windows, and killed and wounded several persons; but the mob was finally dispersed by the troops. Warlike demonstrations were renewed the next day, crowds of people parading the streets and shouting outside the residences of the Ministers. A turbulent mob of two thousand persons from the Piræus was dispersed by the troops, after several rioters had been wounded.

On February 1, 1878, the Greek Premier declared, in the Chamber of Deputies in Athens, that he intended to send troops into Thessaly and Epirus; and the entire Greek population was ordered to enroll in the National Guard. Great enthusiasm prevailed in Greece. The Greek government ordered twelve thousand men to cross the frontier into the Greek provinces of Turkey—Epirus, Thessaly and Macedonia; and the Greek Chamber of Deputies voted a war supply of ten million drachmas, to be raised by a loan. Twelve thousand Greek troops crossed the frontier on February 2, 1878. An insurrection broke out against the Turks in the island of Candia, or Crete; and the Greek insurgents declared the island annexed to Greece. The Ottoman Porte sent Hobart Pasha's fleet to the Piræus. On February

3, 1878, the Greeks in Thessaly captured Domocco from the Turks at the point of the bayonet, losing one hundred and fifty killed. A few days later an armistice was concluded between the Greeks and the Turks; but the Greek insurgents in Thessaly and Crete continued in arms, and fought fierce conflicts with the Ottoman troops.

In the meantime Turkey had become extremely anxious for peace, and early in January, 1878, asked for an armistice through England. Great Britain sounded Russia as to the terms on which she would grant peace to the Porte, and Russia replied that Turkey would have to treat directly with Russia for peace. Mr. Layard, the British ambassador at Constantinople, handed to the Porte the Russian reply to England's note. Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, informed Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, that Great Britain must be allowed to participate in any peace conditions which might follow an armistice. Russia claimed the right to negotiate with Turkey alone, but recognized the right of the European Powers to show their appreciation of the peace conditions between the belligerents. The Russian government maintained the strictest secrecy as to the terms that it would exact from the Porte. The British Cabinet held numerous councils, and maintained constant telegraphic communication with St. Petersburg. The Porte now informed England of its readiness to treat directly with Russia.

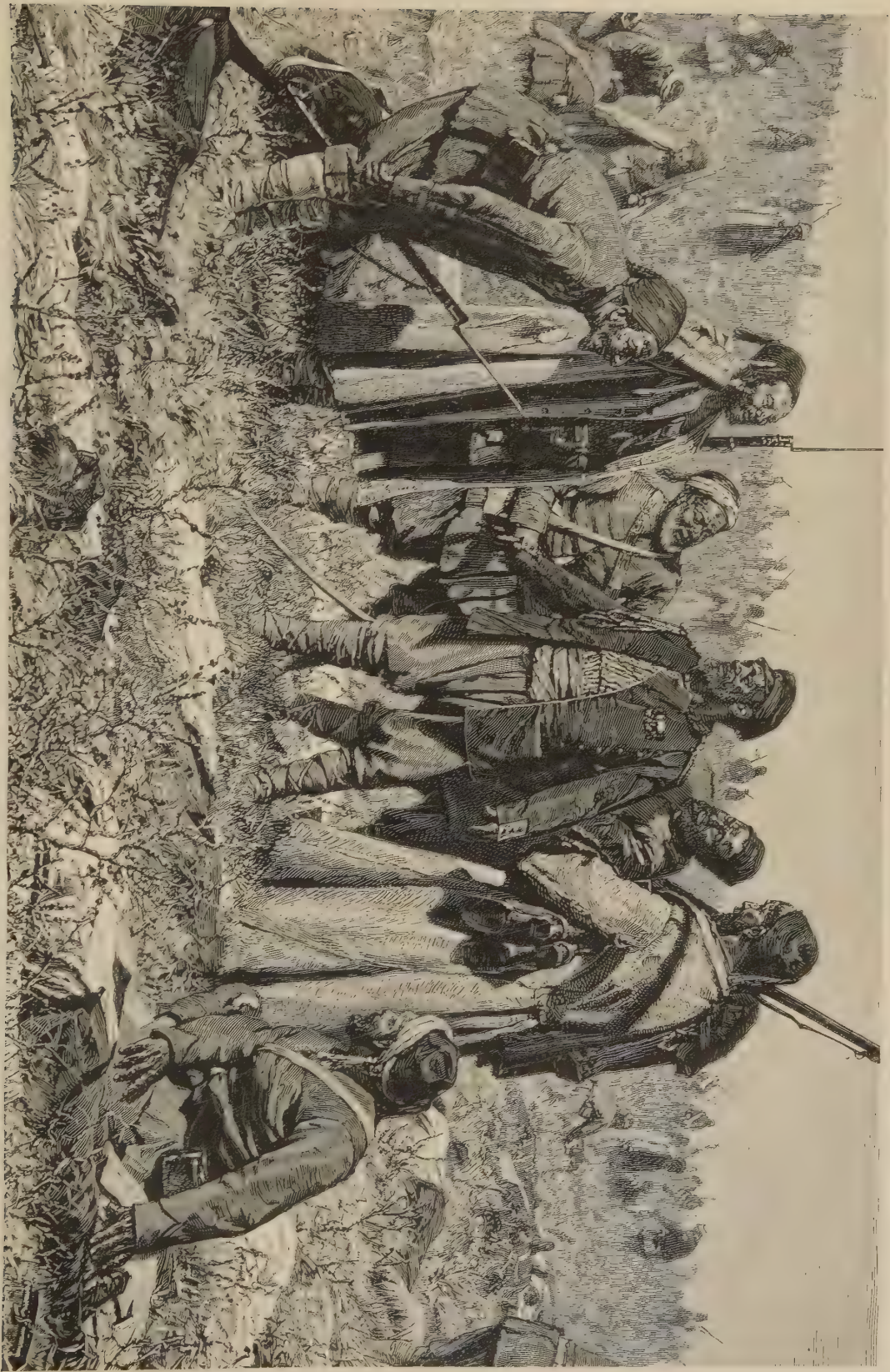
On January 9, 1878, the Turkish commander-in-chief notified the Russian headquarters at Lovatz that he was empowered to arrange the basis of an armistice. The Grand-Duke Nicholas, the Russian commander-in-chief, after referring the matter to St. Petersburg, replied that negotiations could only be conducted with himself directly, and that there could be no question of an armistice without bases for peace. On January 13th the Grand-Duke Nicholas also telegraphed to Constantinople that he was ready to receive an Ottoman delegate to discuss armistice conditions, whereupon the Porte appointed Server and Namyk Pashas

to go to Kazanlik to negotiate with the Grand-Duke Nicholas.

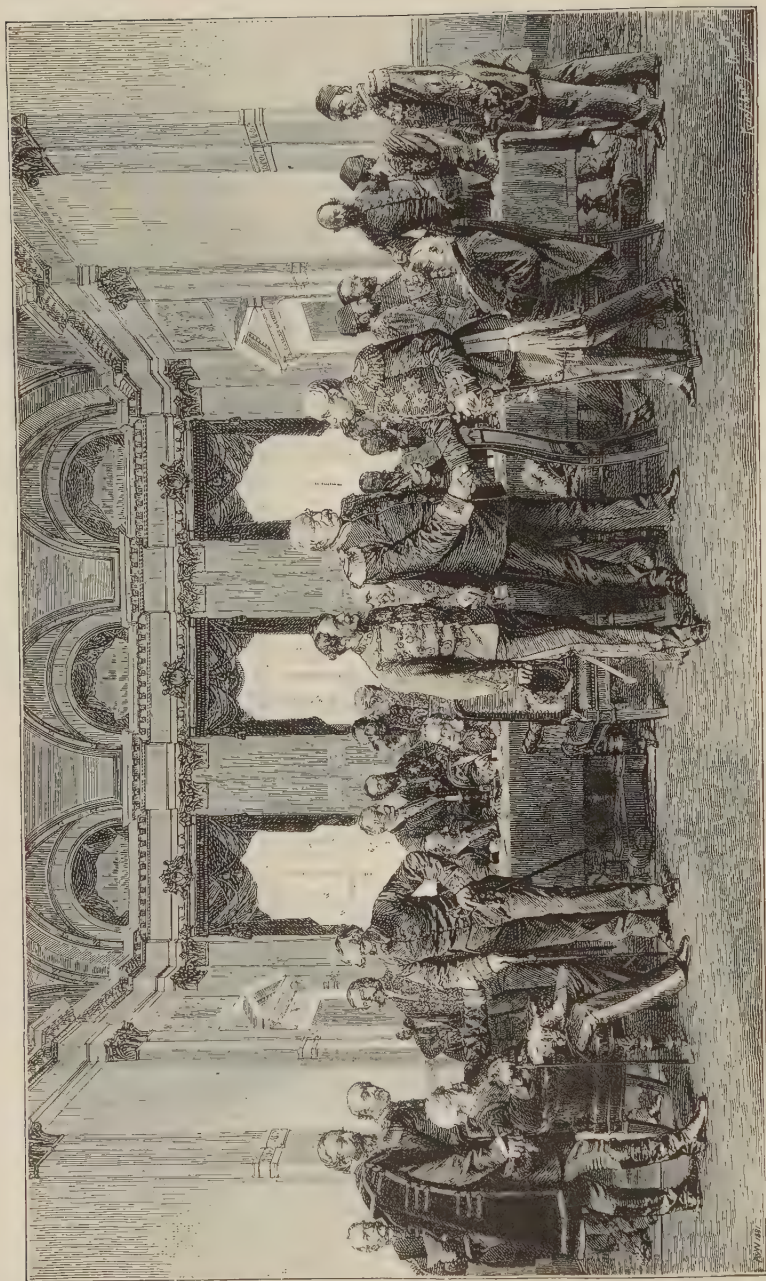
In the meantime Great Britain continued distrustful of Russia; and telegraphic orders were sent from London to Malta, instructing Vice-Admiral Hornby to move with his fleet to Turkish waters for the protection of British interests. While the British Cabinet was thus hostile to Russia, the Liberal party in England showed its opposition to a war policy; and John Bright made a great speech at Birmingham in favor of non-intervention, while speeches against England's going to war with Russia were made by Mr. Gladstone at Oxford, Mr. Mundella at Sheffield, and Sir William Vernon Harcourt at Bradford.

Russia declared her readiness to discuss with the British Cabinet the special points which might affect British interests. This declaration caused frequent Cabinet councils in London. Both Great Britain and Austria-Hungary declared their determination to be consulted on the peace conditions. Russia, in defining her course, expressed her good will toward England and Austria-Hungary, disclaimed any intention of interfering with the Suez Canal or the route to India, and denied that she contemplated the acquisition of Constantinople. When the British Parliament assembled, January 17, 1878, the speech from the throne alluded to the Eastern question in a pacific tone, but recommended precautionary measures. England now proposed a conference of the Great European Powers to settle the European questions growing out of the Russo-Turkish war.

In the meantime England continued to be greatly excited. On January 29, 1878, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, informed the House of Commons that he would move for a supplementary grant for the military and naval service. This announcement precipitated a debate which lasted several days, the Liberals opposing the policy of the Ministry. Lord Beaconsfield spoke in the same strain in the House of Lords as did Sir Stafford Northcote in the House of Commons, declaring



EPISODE OF THE TURCO-RUSSIAN WAR.



CONGRESS AT BERLIN.

that England was not going to be dictated to by any other Power. Lord Derby, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, and Lord Caernarvon, Colonial Secretary, disapproving Lord Beaconsfield's policy, tendered their resignations. Lord Derby soon withdrew his resignation; but Lord Caernarvon retired, and was succeeded by Viscount Sandon. The Liberal leaders held a meeting, at which it was decided to sustain the supplementary credit vote if it were not a war vote. In the House of Commons, on January 28, 1878, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in moving for a supplementary credit of six million pounds sterling, made a great speech, in which he declared that the supplementary credit vote would be construed by the government as a vote of confidence. He expressed great distrust of Russia, and explained the circumstances under which the British fleet had been sent to Besika Bay, declaring that European concert was necessary. Sir Stafford Northcote's speech precipitated another debate, which continued several days; such Liberal leaders as William E. Forster, John Bright and Sir Wilfrid Lawson censuring the Ministry's action. Mr. Cross replied, expressing great distrust of Russia. A large anti-Russian meeting was held in London.

Toward the close of January, 1878, the British fleet in the Mediterranean under Vice-Admiral Hornby approached Gallipoli, on the Dardanelles, and the guns of the fort fired a salute as the fleet approached; but the order to the fleet to advance was countermanded by the British Ministry, and Admiral Hornby returned to Besika Bay.

On February 3, 1878, an armistice was signed at Adrianople by the Grand-Duke Nicholas on the part of Russia and by Server and Namyk Pasha on the part of Turkey. The armistice was signed on the following basis: 1st, the erection of Bulgaria into a principality; 2d, a war indemnity or territory compensation; 3d, the independence of Roumania, Servia and Montenegro, with increase of territory for each; 4th, reforms in Bosnia and Herzegovina; 5th, an ulterior

understanding between the Sultan and Czar regarding the Dardanelles; 6th, the evacuation of the Danubian fortresses and Erzeroum by the Turks. The conclusion of the armistice caused great rejoicings in St. Petersburg. The Czar issued an address to his troops, declaring that they were "still far from the end," and should hold themselves prepared until a durable peace was secured. Thanksgiving services were held in all the churches in the Russian capital, salvos of artillery were fired, flags were flying, and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

In accordance with the armistice conditions, the Turks evacuated the fortresses of Widdin, Rutschuk, Silistria, Belgradschik and Erzeroum, which were then occupied by the Russians; and, on the approach of the Russian forces toward Constantinople, the Ottoman troops retired from the Buyuk-Chekmejek lines, which comprised the fortifications of the Turkish capital. The office of Grand Vizier was now abolished, and a new Turkish Ministry was formed with Ahmed Vefik Effendi at its head.

Count Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian Chancellor, proposed a conference of the Great European Powers to settle the European questions growing out of the Russo-Turkish war. Count Andrassy's proposal was accepted by Germany, France, Italy, Great Britain and Russia; but Russia strenuously objected to holding the conference in Vienna or any other great capital, and preferred some small town in one of the minor states.

After an animated debate, the supplementary credit of six million pounds sterling was voted by the British House of Commons, amid deafening cheers, February 6, 1878; and Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced that five British war vessels had been ordered to Constantinople to protect the lives and property of British subjects. There was tremendous excitement outside of Parliament. Crowds thronged the streets, singing *God Save the Queen*, and making demonstrations in favor of the government. A

rumor that the British fleet had again been ordered to the Dardanelles caused intense excitement. The windows of Mr. Gladstone's house and of *The Daily News* office were broken by excited mobs.

The relations between England and Russia were now extremely critical. Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, informed the other Great Powers that Russia contemplated sending troops into Constantinople, because England and other nations had determined to send war vessels there for the protection of their subjects. Austria-Hungary followed England's example so far as to ask leave for her fleet to enter the Dardanelles. The Sultan, however, refused so far as to authorize the British fleet to advance to his capital, on the ground that Russian troops might occupy the city if he did so. But the British government instructed Admiral Hornby to pass the Dardanelles, with or without leave. Admiral Hornby accordingly passed the Dardanelles with his five iron-clads on February 13, 1878, and entered the Sea of Marmora, taking a position off Prince's Islands, thirteen miles south of Constantinople. Thereupon the Russians threatened to enter the Turkish capital. The Sultan endeavored to stop the advance of the British fleet and the entry of the Russian troops by personal appeals to Queen Victoria and the Czar Alexander II., but his efforts were ineffectual. The British fleet advanced, and the Russians occupied the suburbs of Constantinople.

A rumor that the Russians had entered Constantinople and that the British fleet had arrived there caused intense excitement in London. In the British House of Commons, on February 14, 1879, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, stated that Admiral Hornby's fleet had orders to pass the Dardanelles, with or without the Sultan's leave, and that the ships were prepared for action. This announcement was received with loud cheers. Lord Derby made a similar statement in the House of Lords, and read a dispatch from Prince Gortschakoff informing him of the Russian occupation of Constantinople.

There was also great excitement in Austria-Hungary. Count Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian Chancellor, had a long conference with the Emperor Francis Joseph; and the Emperor sent for the Archduke Albrecht, the Field Marshal and commander-in-chief of the Austro-Hungarian army, for the purpose of concerting important military measures. The excitement in Vienna and Pesth was extreme, and the Hungarian press was bitterly hostile to Russia. Great Britain and Austria-Hungary were acting in full accord, and an alliance between those two Powers was imminent.

The danger of war between England and Russia was increasing hourly. Lord Derby protested against the Russian occupation of Constantinople, and intimated to the Russian government that any attempt to seize Gallipoli or menace the communications of the British fleet might lead to serious consequences. This intimation was disregarded by Russia, as Russian troops occupied part of the Constantinople line of defenses on February 15th. There was great excitement in St. Petersburg. Russia addressed a conciliatory note to England in regard to Gallipoli, and the document was considered in an informal meeting of the British Cabinet. The British fleet now withdrew from Prince's Islands to Mundania Bay, forty-two miles south of Constantinople. The Czar asked the Sultan's permission for the entry of a portion of the Russian army into Constantinople, but the Sultan refused the Czar's request.

The Czar of Russia now appealed to the Emperor of Germany to use his efforts for the preservation of peace. Austria-Hungary appealed to Germany to intervene by dissuading Russia from occupying Constantinople; and Prince Bismarck, the German Chancellor, at Count Andrassy's solicitation, and in compliance with a request from St. Petersburg to make German influence felt, intimated to Prince Gortschakoff that he was straining the situation beyond reasonable bounds. Russia accepted Prince Bismarck's friendly offices, and issued a circular in-

forming the other Great Powers that she had renounced the occupation of Constantinople at the Emperor William's request. There was great disappointment at St. Petersburg, because the Russian people had expected the moral support of Germany, whereas they now heard the Emperor of Germany, in his speech from the throne, referring to the programme of the Constantinople Conference of the previous year as the basis for a settlement. Thus friendly relations were restored between Russia and Austria-Hungary.

In the German Reichstag, on February 19, 1878, in response to an interpellation by Herr Benningsen, Prince Bismarck made a speech, in which he said that Germany had no rivalry with England except a friendly one in trade, and that he would not advise the Emperor to go to war unless German interests were endangered, and that those interests were not then in peril. On the same day, in reply to a question of the Lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath, Prince Auersperg, the Austrian Premier, expressed dissatisfaction with some of the peace stipulations, but expected that the European Conference would make matters all right.

On February 24, 1878, a joint council of the Ministries of Austria and Hungary was held at Vienna, and lasted five hours. The Emperor Francis Joseph presided. Count Andrassy stated that he desired a vote of confidence and a vote of credit for military purposes, to support Austria-Hungary's views at the European Conference, as some of Russia's conditions were inadmissible. The Ministers empowered Count Andrassy to ask the Delegations for a credit not exceeding sixty million florins. Both Count Andrassy and the Emperor Francis Joseph assured the council that they earnestly desired peace.

On February 24, 1878, Lord Beaconsfield's supporters assembled in great force near the Marble Arch, in London, for the purpose of voting down the peace resolutions, and protesting against any attempt to embarrass the Ministry, and against a Russian occupation of Constantinople. After passing en-

thusiastic resolutions in favor of the Ministry, the crowd attacked and temporarily broke up the peace meeting which was in progress in Hyde Park. After some time Charles Bradlaugh moved the resolutions in favor of peace, but he was frequently obliged to change his position. Several fights occurred, and the mob sang *Rule Britannia*. After Mr. Bradlaugh's departure there was some heated discussion and more fighting. It was estimated that there were from eighty thousand to one hundred thousand people around the park, of whom ten thousand actually participated in the proceedings. The assemblage dispersed gradually; but a large and excited mob went to hoot before Mr. Gladstone's residence, and was only prevented from doing any damage by a strong force of police.

In the meantime Russia quarreled with Serbia and Roumania. Serbia claimed part of Old Serbia, which Russia desired to annex to Bulgaria. Late in February, 1878, the Russians occupied Pirot and Ak-Palanka; the Servians withdrawing to Nissa, and Prince Milan protesting against the Russian occupation. The Russians continued to advance; but Prince Milan remained at Nissa with a strong force, and refused to evacuate the place. Russia, however, reassured Serbia relative to Nissa. Roumania was dissatisfied because Russia was determined to seize Roumanian Bessarabia and to give the Dobrudja in exchange. Prince Charles of Roumania threatened to abdicate if Russia persisted, but Russia showed no signs of relinquishing her designs upon Bessarabia.

After long negotiation, the preliminary treaty of peace was signed on March 2, 1878, at San Stefano, a small village ten miles from Constantinople, by the Grand-Duke Nicholas on the part of Russia, and by Server and Namyk Pashas on the part of Turkey. The Grand-Duke Nicholas held a grand review the next day, Sunday, March 3, 1878, and formally announced the event to his troops. The news produced unbounded enthusiasms at St. Petersburg; and an immense multitude as-

sembled before the palace, shouting and singing *God Save the Czar*. The principal conditions of the treaty were the following: 1st. Batoum, Kars, Ardahan and the district of Bayazid to be ceded to Russia; 2d. The question of the Straits to be reserved for further consideration; 3d. The question of the navigation of the Danube to remain in *status quo*; 4th. A zone to be left between Montenegro and Servia, so as to enable the Porte to maintain communication with Bosnia and Herzegovina; 5th. The new Principality of Bulgaria to include Bourgas, Varna and Kustendje, but not Salonica or Adrianople; 6th. Russia to have power to cede the Dobrudja to Roumania in exchange for Roumanian Bessarabia; 7th. The money indemnity to be twelve million pounds sterling, in addition to the territorial cession. The Czar and the Sultan exchanged congratulatory telegrams, and the Peace of San Stefano was speedily ratified by the Russian and Turkish governments.

Great Britain and Austria-Hungary were greatly dissatisfied with the Treaty of San Stefano. It was proposed to settle the Eastern question by a Congress of the Great European Powers at Berlin, but misunderstandings soon arose concerning it. Great Britain demanded that the whole treaty should be submitted to the Congress, and her demand was sustained by Austria-Hungary. The *London Times*, a journal extremely favorable to Russia, contended that Russia must submit every one of the peace conditions to the Congress. This demand was made because it was believed that special and secret arrangements had been made between Russia and Turkey, independent of the treaty. This was, however, denied by the Russian press. In Germany the government organs, such as the *Berlin Post*, *National Zeitung* and others, previously of Russian sympathies, now contended that precautions must be taken to prevent the Dardanelles and Bulgaria from becoming Russian property. In the British House of Lords, on March 11th, Lord Derby, in reply to Lord Strathden, said that it would be useless and foolish for England to partici-

pate in the Congress unless it had real power.

The German government determined not to issue invitations to the Congress until all difficulties about the subjects to be considered thereat should be removed. Germany, however, claimed the right to preside over the Congress. Prince Bismarck notified Austria-Hungary that, in consequence of his intervention, Russia had consented to submit all the peace conditions, without exception, to the Congress for discussion, should the Congress make a demand to that effect. England still persistently refused to participate in the Congress until Russia gave a formal engagement to submit all the clauses of the Treaty of San Stefano to the Congress. Prince Gortschakoff reiterated a previous promise that the full treaty should be communicated to the other Great Powers. On March 19th Count Andrassy made a conciliatory speech to the Hungarian Delegation. In the British House of Lords, on March 21st, Lord Derby, in reply to a speech by Lord Strathden on the Eastern question, reiterated his former declaration that England expected the whole treaty to be submitted to the Congress; otherwise a Congress would be useless.

In the meantime Austria-Hungary was taking precautionary measures against Russian aggression. On March 9th a demand was presented to the Austrian and Hungarian Delegations for grants on account of extraordinary and urgent army and navy requirements. A spirited debate occurred in the sub-committee of the Hungarian Delegation, M. Falk and Count Andrassy sustaining the demand for a grant. On March 13th the Hungarian Delegation voted in committee the grant demanded for urgent and extraordinary army and navy requirements. Count Andrassy informed the Hungarian Budget Committee that Austria-Hungary would never consent to the extension of Bulgaria to the Ægean Sea, or to a Russian occupation of the province for more than six months. Herr Wahrmann and others declared that the Hungarians were ready to enter upon war if unavoidably

necessary. The Budget Committee of the Austrian Delegation adopted, by a vote of eleven to nine, a resolution to the effect that if a display of military force became unavoidable, the Austro-Hungarian government be empowered to incur, with the consent of the Ministries of Austria and Hungary, an expenditure not exceeding sixty million florins. On March 21st the Austrian Delegation granted a credit of sixty million florins, by a vote of thirty-nine to twenty.

On March 10th a peace meeting was held in Hyde Park, in London, but was dispersed by a disorderly mob, which cheered for Lord Beaconsfield and Musurus Pasha, the Turkish ambassador at London, and groaned before Mr. Gladstone's residence. Mr. Gladstone and his wife, when going to church, were obliged to take refuge in a friend's house, whence they were escorted by the police. The Prince of Teck was mistaken for Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador, and was insulted and hustled by the mob.

In the meantime Great Britain displayed the greatest vigilance. The House of Commons voted the navy estimates on March 15th. All officers of the Corps of Royal Engineers first on the list for foreign service were ordered to provide themselves with field equipments and to be ready for immediate service, and several more iron-clads were sent to the Dardanelles. England obtained permission from Turkey to disembark troops on the island of Tenedos, on the west coast of Asia Minor, and to send four more iron-clads to the Sea of Marmora. M. Onou, the dragoman of the Russian legation at Constantinople, protested against these proceedings. On March 31st the English landed some war material on the island of Tenedos.

In the meantime the Russians continued to tighten their hold on Constantinople and the Bosphorus, distributing troops in the suburbs of the Turkish capital; and a Russian division was marching on Bulair, an important position on the isthmus of Gallipoli; while Russian torpedo boats were placed in the Bosphorus.

About the middle of March, 1878, a force of twelve thousand Turks landed at Volo, in Thessaly, and soon crushed the Greek insurrection in that Turkish province. The Turkish irregulars committed the greatest outrages—plundering, massacring and devastating; twenty villages being burned or pillaged, the inhabitants having fled or perished. The insurgents were afterward defeated by the Turks.

In the meantime the Russians seized Roumanian Bessarabia; having, on March 6th, occupied the Bessarabian towns of Ismail, Cahul and Bolgrad; the Roumanian government protesting against the occupation. It was stated that the Roumanian agent would hand to Count Andrassy a memorandum declaring that Roumania refused to be bound by the Russo-Turkish peace preliminaries. The Servians, who were also dissatisfied with the Treaty of San Stefano, reoccupied Vranja. The Grand Duke Nicholas made a pressing demand on Servia to remobilize her reserves as a demonstration against Austria-Hungary, but Servia declined with firmness.

England made a formal demand on Russia in regard to the submission of the Treaty of San Stefano to the proposed European Congress, to which Russia gave an unsatisfactory reply. Prince Bismarck continued to mediate between Great Britain and Russia for the preservation of peace. Russia's suggestion that the Congress be held without England was declined by the other Great Powers. Germany deferred issuing calls for a Congress until Great Britain and Russia should agree. The *Berlin Post*, one of Prince Bismarck's organs, intimated that Germany would never fight for Russian or any other interests, and that Russia had better restrain her ambition.

General Ignatieff went on a mission to Vienna, and had interviews with Count Andrassy and the Emperor Francis Joseph with the view of isolating England from the other Great Powers; but his mission was a failure. General Ignatieff declared that the Russian army would remain before Constantinople as long as the British fleet stayed

in the Sea of Marmora. Count Andrassy informed General Ignatieff that Austria-Hungary regarded the Treaty of San Stefano as clashing with Austro-Hungarian and European interests, and General Ignatieff immediately started for St. Petersburg. Austria-Hungary refused to recognize the Treaty of San Stefano, and prepared to mobilize an army of four hundred thousand men on the Bosnian frontier; and Servia, becoming alarmed at Austria-Hungary's attitude, remobilized her army to resist any threatened encroachment on Servian independence.

In the British House of Lords, on March 28th, Lord Derby announced his resignation of the office of Secretary of Foreign Affairs, because the Ministry had determined to call out the reserves—a measure which he did not deem prudent in the interests of peace. Lord Derby was succeeded in office by Lord Salisbury. In the House of Commons, on March 28th, the Right Hon. Gathorne Hardy, Secretary of War, in reply to various questions, announced that the Ministry intended to call out the reserves; and on April 1st the queen's message calling out the reserves was read in the House of Commons by the Speaker. On April 9th, in the debate on the address to the queen in reply to her message, the Ministry was sustained by a vote of three hundred and nineteen to sixty-four.

On April 1st Lord Salisbury, the new British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, issued a circular note to the other Great European Powers, complaining of the terms imposed by Russia upon Turkey, and asserting that the treaties of 1856 and 1871 were still in force. Lord Salisbury's circular was received with favor in Vienna, and Austria-Hungary seemed disposed to act in diplomatic accord with England. Prince Bismarck's proposal for a European Congress to revise the treaties of 1856 and 1871 was accepted by Russia, but rejected by Great Britain. The other Great Powers asked England to state her views. The *Berlin Post*, Bismarck's organ, adopted Lord Salisbury's criticisms of the Treaty of San Stef-

ano, intimating that England would not stand alone in maintaining that the Treaty of Paris of 1856, until amended, was the law of Europe, and said that Russia would have no choice between war and parting with the Treaty of San Stefano, as she would do if she entered a European Congress. Prince Gortschakoff replied to Lord Salisbury's circular, contesting it point by point, and defending the Russo-Turkish treaty; but his reply was in the main conciliatory. Prince Gortschakoff also replied to Austria-Hungary's objections to the treaty. Gortschakoff's note was not reassuring, and Germany endeavored to bring about an understanding. In May an effort was made to settle the question by a simultaneous withdrawal of the British fleet and the Russian troops from the vicinity of Constantinople, but without success.

The Russians, expecting a war with England, prepared for it by moving troops toward Gallipoli and erecting fortifications at certain points in Southern Roumelia. About the end of March, Russia ordered the building of one hundred more torpedo boats. The Turks then had an army encamped in the lines of Buyukdere, and fifty battalions in the lines defending Constantinople.

The quarrel between Russia and Roumania growing out of Russia's demand for the cession of Roumanian Bessarabia to Russia became extremely bitter. The Roumanians became so hostile that they hindered the passage of Russian provision columns through their territory, and threatened to forbid it altogether. Prince Gortschakoff declared to Prince Ghika, the Roumanian agent at St. Petersburg, that Russia's decision in regard to Bessarabia was irrevocable; that Russia would not allow the question to be brought before the proposed European Congress; and that, if Roumania refused to cede Bessarabia, Russia would take it by force. Prince Gortschakoff also informed the Roumanian agent that if Roumania intended to protest against the article in the Russo-Turkish treaty providing for the communication of the Russian army in Bulgaria with Russia, the Czar would order

the Russian occupation of Roumania and the disbandment of the Roumanian army. The Roumanian agent replied that Russia should have treated with Roumania, not with Turkey, concerning the passage of the Russian army through Roumanian territory; to which Prince Gortschakoff rejoined that Russia insisted upon a free passage through Roumania. There was general sympathy with Roumania throughout Europe.

Toward the middle of April, 1878, the Russian troops arrived at various places on the Roumanian bank of the Danube. On April 15th Prince Charles of Roumania started to join his army. Constant quarrels occurred between the Russian and Roumanian officers and soldiers. The Russians prevented a train laden with ammunition from leaving Bucharest for the Roumanian army. The entire Roumanian militia was called out. The Russians stationed vessels laden with stone, ready to close the Sulina mouth of the Danube, if necessary. The Russians claimed that the military convention with Roumania concerning the passage of Russian troops lasted until a definitive peace was concluded. The Roumanians withdrew their troops to the Carpathian mountains, where they boasted that they would make another Plevna if the Russians attacked them. The commander of a Russian division near Bucharest informed the Roumanian government that his troops would remain in Roumania until they returned to Russia. The Roumanian government asked Russia for explanations. The relations between Austria-Hungary and Roumania became closer. The Emperor William I. of Germany asked his relative, Prince Charles of Roumania, to yield Bessarabia to Russia, and to abdicate if the Roumanians raised difficulties; but the prince refused, and went to his army. This German interference offended Austria-Hungary. The Russians, considering their communications menaced by the position of the Roumanian army, determined to occupy Plojesta. Roumania determined to protest, at the proposed European Congress, against the cession of Bessarabia to Russia.

In the meantime Bulgaria was in a condition of anarchy. The Bulgarians were taking a terrible revenge for the Turkish outrages of 1876. The Mussulmans were goaded to despair by the tyranny of their former victims. The Russians took repressive measures and executed three Bulgarians. The country was full of refugees from the scattered armies and disbanded garrisons of the Turks, who were joined by the inhabitants of the Mussulman villages in a guerrilla warfare against the native Christians and the Russian troops. About eighty thousand Mussulmans in the Balkan districts armed themselves with cannon and rifles left behind by Suleiman Pasha's army at the time of his retreat, and attacked the Russians, who lost over nine hundred men in the fight. The Bulgarian Christians attacked eight Mussulman villages and committed great outrages. The Mussulman insurgents surprised a Russian encampment at Philippopolis and took one thousand prisoners. Fifteen fresh Russian battalions were sent against the Roumelian insurgents. At the beginning of May heavy fighting occurred in the vicinity of Haskoi, and twenty-one Mohammedan villages were destroyed. The trouble was finally settled, and quiet was restored.

Early in May, 1878, General Todleben, the Russian commander in Turkey, demanded the immediate evacuation of Shumla, Varna and Batoum by the Turks. The Turks refused until the Russians retired to Adrianople, in accordance with the Peace of San Stefano; but the Russians maintained that they could not withdraw until the three fortresses were evacuated. General Todleben threatened to occupy Constantinople in case the Turks did not evacuate the fortresses. The matter was finally arranged; but the Turks did not evacuate the fortresses until the end of July, when the Russians retired from the vicinity of Constantinople.

In the Austrian Reichsrath, on May 14th, Prince Auersperg, the Austrian Premier, made a speech indicating Austria-Hungary's intention of opposing Russian aggression;

and on the same day Herr Tisza, the Hungarian Premier, made a speech of the same tenor in the Hungarian Diet. Both Premiers asked for a credit vote. Herr Tisza said that it was necessary to take precautions on the northern, southern and eastern frontiers of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. On May 16th the Lower House of the Hungarian Diet passed a bill providing for a credit of sixty million florins. Austro-Hungarian troops were ready to be sent to the frontier.

In the meantime Great Britain had been making extensive preparations for war. Six thousand Sepoys were brought to Malta from British India, and additional iron-clads were sent to the Eastern Mediterranean. Recruiting was going on briskly in England, and factories for the manufacture of arms were working day and night. A gun-boat flotilla was to be prepared for the defense of the British coast, and a fleet was to be sent into the Baltic to operate against the Russians in that quarter. The British government also chartered one hundred fast cruisers, and threatened to treat Russian privateers as pirates. The preparations for war were proceeding actively in the arsenals and dock-yards, and precautions were taken for the defense of British India.

In the meantime Russia had not been idle. The Russian garrisons in Poland were moving southward, and two hundred thousand Russian troops were moving toward the Gallician frontier of Austria-Hungary. Moscow and St. Petersburg were full of troops, and new levies were constantly coming forward. The Russian people were bitter against Great Britain and Austria-Hungary. The Russian finances were in a wretched condition. The Russian government was so heavily in debt that it did not dare to publish the weekly returns, and Russian credit was so bad that the Russian government could not borrow money from the German bankers under thirty per cent discount. The continued issue of paper money was necessary.

About the middle of May, 1878, Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador at

London, went on a special mission to St. Petersburg for the purpose of bringing about an understanding between the British and Russian governments about the meeting of the proposed Congress of the Great Powers.

On May 20, 1878, a riot occurred before the Seraglio in Constantinople, originating with a band of refugees, who endeavored to restore ex-Sultan Amurath V. to the Ottoman throne; but the outbreak was speedily suppressed.

Count Schouvaloff's mission was entirely successful. Through his efforts and those of Prince Bismarck, an understanding was finally reached between Great Britain and Russia; and it was agreed to settle the dispute about the Russo-Turkish treaty by a Congress of the Great European Powers at Berlin. Important concessions were made on both sides. Count Schouvaloff, on his return to London, brought with him the assurances of Russia's desire for peace; and he and Lord Salisbury agreed upon a memorandum as to the terms upon which Russia and England would enter the Congress. The terms agreed upon were the following: 1. Bulgaria to be divided into two provinces—one north of the Balkans, to be under a prince; the other south of the Balkans, but not touching the Ægean Sea, with a Christian governor and a government similar to that of an English colony; while the Turkish troops were to retire permanently from Bulgaria. 2. Great Britain agreed not to oppose the retrocession of Bessarabia or the annexation of Batoum to Russia, and reserved the right to discuss in the Congress international arrangements relative to the Danube. 3. Russia promised not to advance further her Asiatic frontier, nor to take indemnity in land, nor to interfere with the claims of British creditors; the question of payment to be discussed by the Congress, which was also to reorganize Thessaly, Epirus and the other Greek provinces of Turkey. 4. Russia was to restore Bayazid to Turkey, while Turkey was to cede the province of Kotour to Persia. 5. Russia agreed that the question of

the passage of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus should remain in *status quo*. 6. England reserved the right to suggest at the Congress that Europe should reorganize Bulgaria, and to discuss the question of the occupation of that province by Russia, and also the question of the passage of Russian troops through Roumania. 7. The Turkish promises of reform in Armenia were to be understood to have been made to England as well as to Russia. The agreement reserved to Russia and England the right to raise and discuss in the Congress all questions not raised by its stipulations; but if, after agreed to, Russia persisted in maintaining the treaty as modified, England would not dispute her right to do so. At England's demand, Count Schouvaloff finally consented to submit the whole treaty to the Congress. All the Great Powers adhered to this proposal.

On May 29, 1878, Count Andrassy mentioned to the Austrian Delegation the points brought to the notice of Russia and the other Great Powers as chiefly affecting Austro-Hungarian interests. In an interview with the Hungarian Delegation the next day, May 30, 1878, Count Andrassy used the following strong language: "The monarchy is vested on the basis of historical development, and let him who touches it beware." There continued to be a misunderstanding between Russia and Austria-Hungary, and Austria-Hungary continued her military preparations with the greatest activity. Austria-Hungary strongly opposed the extension of the Montenegrin territory in the direction of the Adriatic.

On May 25, 1878, Germany was informed of the happy solution of the Anglo-Russian difficulty, and was requested to immediately issue invitations to the other Great European Powers to meet in a Congress at Berlin for the definitive settlement of the Eastern question. Great Britain, Russia, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy and Turkey accepted Germany's invitations; and it was agreed that the Congress should meet at Berlin on June 13, 1878. The following were the plenipotentiaries of the European Powers

represented in the Congress: Prince Bismarck, Prince Hohenlohe and Count von Bulow for Germany; the Earl of Beaconsfield, the Marquis of Salisbury and Odo Russell for Great Britain; Prince Gortschakoff, Count Schouvaloff and M. d'Oubril for Russia; Count Andrassy, Count Karoyli and Count Kaymerle for Austria-Hungary; M. Waddington and the Marquis de St. Vallier for France; Count Corti and Count de Launay for Italy; and Caratheodori Effendi and Mehemet Ali, the former a Greek Christian and the latter a Prussian by the name of Schultz, for Turkey.

The European Congress for the settlement of the Eastern question assembled in the Radziwell Palace, in Berlin, at one o'clock, p. m., June 13, 1878, and was organized with the election of Prince Bismarck as President. Nothing was done on that day, excepting the opening formalities. The leading figures in the Congress were Prince Bismarck and Lord Beaconsfield. Lord Beaconsfield made a good impression on Prince Bismarck in their interviews. On June 18th Great Britain proposed the admission of Greece on all subjects concerning the Christians, and the Congress agreed to this the next day. Russia and Austria-Hungary came to an agreement similar to the Anglo-Russian agreement.

The plenipotentiaries presented a large number of memorials to the Congress from the Sultan's Christian subjects, praying that they might be left under the Sultan's rule, and protesting strongly against being handed over to Russia, Bulgaria or Austria-Hungary. The discussion of the Bulgarian question produced a crisis at the Congress; as Great Britain and Austria-Hungary, having concluded an agreement to support each other at the Congress, firmly demanded the evacuation of Bulgaria by the Russian troops. England threatened to withdraw from the Congress unless her demand was complied with. Prince Gortschakoff and Lord Beaconsfield were both angry, and neither was willing to give way. Lord Beaconsfield threatened to leave the Congress with his colleagues and to order the

British fleet to proceed to Constantinople at once, unless his demand was complied with. An open rupture and a dissolution of the Congress was only prevented by the efforts of Prince Bismarck, whose skill and tact finally cooled the anger of Lord Beaconsfield and Prince Gortschakoff, and thus preserved peace. Through Bismarck's influence and efforts, Russia conceded the British and Austro-Hungarian demands, and war was thus averted. The Congress agreed to allow Austria-Hungary to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Bosnians and Herzegovinians, and also the Ottoman Porte, protested against the Austro-Hungarian occupation; and Servia also opposed the scheme.

Toward the middle of June, 1878, a revolt against the Turks broke out in the island of Candia, or Crete. Battles were fought at Canea and Apocorona between the Turkish forces and the Cretan insurgents; and on June 29th the Turks defeated the Cretans at Canea, capturing their position.

Early in July, 1878, the whole world was surprised by suddenly learning that, before the Congress had assembled, Great Britain had secretly concluded a defensive treaty with the Ottoman Porte, by which Asiatic Turkey was placed under the protection of Great Britain, which promised to resist, by force of arms, any further encroachments by Russia upon Asiatic Turkey, while Turkey promised to introduce the necessary reforms throughout her dominions, and ceded the island of Cyprus to England. In July, 1878, Sir Garnet Wolesley occupied Cyprus with the Sepoy troops at Malta. This treaty, although concluded on June 4th, only became known to the British Parliament on July 8th, on which day it was communicated to the Berlin Congress as a matter of courtesy. It occasioned surprise in England and on the Continent of Europe. Both Houses of Parliament were utterly taken by surprise when it became known that such a treaty had been concluded. Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, defended the treaty in a speech in the House of Commons, and was

loudly cheered when he concluded his speech. This treaty gave Great Britain control of the Euphrates valley, and secured her route to India—a railway being in contemplation through the valley from the Mediterranean to British India. Thus Turkey virtually placed herself in the hands of England. The treaty thrilled the English people, and Lord Beaconsfield was the hero of the hour. In an interview with Prince Gortschakoff, at Berlin, on July 9th, Lord Beaconsfield fully and frankly defended the Anglo-Turkish treaty. Prince Gortschakoff declared that he saw nothing objectionable in the treaty, as he entertained no projects of aggrandizement on the coast of Asiatic Turkey. He perceived no difference between England's occupation of Cyprus and her occupation of Malta. He would always be pleased with everything tending to strengthen England's road to India, because it calculated to promote the prosperity of the whole world. Prince Gortschakoff and Lord Beaconsfield then shook hands, as a pledge of the new relations between Russia and Great Britain.

The definitive Treaty of Berlin, as framed by the European Congress, was finally completed on July 13, 1878, on which day the treaty was signed by all the plenipotentiaries; and the Congress adjourned, after a parting speech from Prince Bismarck, who expressed the hope that European peace was firmly established. The treaty was quite lengthy, embracing sixty-four articles. We have only space for an outline of its leading provisions. The treaty provided for the new automatic tributary Principality of Bulgaria, under the suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey, with a Christian prince and a national militia, and to be limited on the south by the Balkans; the prince to be elected by the Bulgarian people, and to be confirmed by the Ottoman Porte and by the Six Great European Powers. There was to be formed the new province of Eastern Roumelia, south of the Balkans, under the direct political authority of the Sultan, having administrative autonomy and a Christian Governor-General; and religious and political

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liberty was to be established therein. The Russian army in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia was to be limited to fifty thousand men, and was to complete the evacuation of the territory by the end of a year. Bosnia and Herzegovina were assigned to Austria-Hungary, excepting Sanjak and Novi-Bazar. The independence of Montenegro was recognized, with religious liberty and the annexation of Antivari. The independence of Servia was recognized on condition of granting religious freedom, while Roumania was to cede Bessarabia to Russia in exchange for the Dobrudja. The fortifications on the Danube were to be razed, while the navigation of the river was to be free. The Ottoman Porte was required to introduce necessary reforms in the island of Candia, or Crete. Religious liberty was to be maintained in Turkey on the widest basis. Turkey was required to cede Batoum, Kars and Ardahan to Russia. Turkey was also required to cede the province of Koutour to Persia. All the European Powers represented in the Congress speedily ratified the Treaty of Berlin.

England came forth triumphant from the Congress of Berlin. A severe check had been put upon Russia's southward advance by the Anglo-Turkish treaty. Lord Beaconsfield had won more for England by diplomacy than other Ministers had won for her by war, and had raised British prestige to the highest point that it had reached since the battle of Waterloo. For a period of twenty years Great Britain had remained in a large measure isolated from the rest of Europe; but the brilliant diplomacy of Lord Beaconsfield restored her former supremacy in European councils, and she was again the leading power of Europe. England was restored to her rightful place in the European States-System, and that was a great gain to the world. All England rang with joyful acclamations at the great triumph that had been achieved without firing a shot, and the British press was lavish in its praises of the successful statesman and diplomat.

Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury were

accorded a grand reception at Dover and in London upon their return from Berlin. The reception in London resembled that of a triumphant warrior returning from a field of conquest, and was given with the same enthusiasm as that with which the ancient Romans greeted their conquering generals on their return from their victorious campaigns. The scenes on that occasion at Charing Cross, Trafalgar Square, Parliament street, Whitehall and Downing street on Lord Beaconsfield's arrival were exciting; and Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury addressed more than one hundred thousand persons. Queen Victoria conferred the Order of the Garter upon the distinguished diplomats, and both were honored with the freedom of the city of London.

Austria-Hungary only obtained possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina after a struggle of two months with the inhabitants, August and September, 1878. The Austro-Hungarian forces, two hundred thousand strong, under Generals Zach, Szapary, Tegethoff, Jovanovich and Philippovich, and the Duke of Würtemberg, had almost daily conflicts with the Bosnians and Herzegovians; but finally the insurrection was crushed, and the Austro-Hungarian forces occupied Serajevo and Mostar, the capitals respectively of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina threatened to produce a Cabinet crisis in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Magyars of Hungary were strenuously opposed to the annexation of any more Slavonic territory, because they were jealous of the preponderance of the Slavonic race over the Magyars. The Hungarian Radicals protested against the occupation of Bosnia and demanded the relinquishment of the new provinces. There was a difficulty concerning Hungary's contingent of expenses in the campaign. A conflict between the Austrian and Hungarian Cabinets was imminent, but the Austrian Reichsrath sustained Count Andrassy's policy by a vote of one hundred and sixty to seventy.

Grave complications were feared between

Austria-Hungary and Turkey concerning the Bosnian question; and Turkey issued a circular to the Great Powers calling upon them to enforce the Treaty of Berlin against Austria-Hungary, thus exciting great indignation at Vienna.

The Greek question threatened complications between Turkey and Greece, and Mukhtar Pasha failed in his efforts to conciliate the Cretans.

Early in September, 1878, an insurrection broke out in Albania, and the Albanian insurgents assassinated the Governor of Ipek and ten other officials. Mehemet Ali Pasha, who was sent to pacify the insurgents, was assassinated by them for his refusal to drive the Austro-Hungarians from Bosnia and Herzegovina. Early in October the Albanians massacred Saad Detden Pasha with one hundred and fifty Turkish officers and troops. The Albanians had forty-five thousand men armed and well equipped to resist the occupation of their territory by any Christian power, and they sent troops into Epirus to oppose the Greeks. The Christian population of Albania fled into Montenegro to escape the wrath of the insurgent Moslems of Albania, who had thus defied the Porte because of its failure to prevent the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire.

Early in 1878 England, through Mr. Layard, her ambassador at Constantinople, endeavored to induce the Ottoman Porte to execute the promised reforms in Asia Minor. Mr. Layard energetically insisted upon the execution of the convention between England and Turkey abolishing the sale and importation of slaves, and demanded the freedom of the slaves who had recently taken refuge at the British consulate.

The Bulgarian Christians continued to plunder and outrage the Mussulmans. The Sultan appealed to the Czar to stop the massacres; and the Czar sent an amicable and reassuring reply, saying that the Russian commissioners in Bulgaria would severely punish all acts of injustice or cruelty committed against any of the inhabitants of the province. Christian refugees were fleeing in the rear of the Russians. The Russian

troops were arming the Christians of Bulgaria, while the Turks were arming the Mussulmans. General Todleben, the Russian commander, issued orders to the Russian military authorities to prevent the formation of insurgent bands and to watch the movement of insurgent committees. Bashi-Bazouks and Circassians defeated the Bulgarian bands in Macedonia; and the Porte sent troops to crush the revolt in Macedonia, which was rapidly spreading into Epirus and Thessaly.

Early in September, 1878, Germany issued a circular to the Great Powers asking them to unite in forcing Turkey to execute the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin. Austria-Hungary, France and Russia gave an affirmative reply.

Late in September, 1878, the Russians withdrew from the vicinity of Constantinople, while the British fleet withdrew from Prince's Islands to Artaki Bay, in the Sea of Marmora, seventy miles south-west from Constantinople.

About the middle of October, 1878, the Russians marched on Adrianople from the north. When the Russians evacuated Babeski the Turks occupied the place; whereupon General Todleben, the Russian commander, summoned Safvet Pasha to evacuate the place. The Turkish commander complied, and the Russians reoccupied the town. The Turks then mounted guns on the Constantinople line of defenses.

Europe was still greatly agitated by the Eastern question. Lord Salisbury accused the Russians of conniving at the atrocities of the Bulgarian Christians, which accusation the Russian officials denied. Great distrust of Russia's sincerity in abiding by the Treaty of Berlin was manifested in England. Russia refused to evacuate the Dobrudja or Roumania until Roumania concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Russia. At the close of October, 1878, England remonstrated with Russia for the non-fulfillment of the Treaty of Berlin; and Turkey asked Russia to explain why Russian troops had returned to Adrianople and other places in Eastern Roumelia. The *London Times*

and the *Golos* of St. Petersburg assumed a warlike tone. On November 9, 1878, Lord Augustus Loftus, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, received assurances of the Czar's desire to faithfully respect the Treaty of Berlin. Russia also assured the other Great Powers of her sincerity to carry out to the letter the stipulations of the treaty.

On February 8, 1879, a definitive treaty of peace between Turkey and Russia was signed at Constantinople, by Caratheodori and Ali Pashas on the part of Turkey, and by Prince Labanoff, the Russian ambassador at the Turkish capital, on the part of Russia. The treaty declared peace and cordial relations between the two Empires, and fixed the war indemnity to be paid by Turkey to Russia at three hundred million paper roubles and deferred the settlement, while all the San Stefano stipulations which were modified by the Treaty of Berlin were to remain as modified, and the articles of the San Stefano Treaty not modified by the Berlin Treaty were to remain in force. Russian evacuation of Ottoman territory was to be completed forty days after the ratification of the treaty. The Russians began to evacuate Turkish territory the next day, February 9, 1879. The definitive treaty of peace was speedily ratified by the Turkish and Russian governments, and the Russian troops in Turkey were ordered to return home. St. Petersburg was brilliantly illuminated on the night of February 16, 1879, in honor of the event.

POLITICAL CRISIS IN FRANCE.

In March, 1876, a new Ministry under M. Dufaure came into power in France; but in December of the same year, 1876, a Cabinet crisis occurred, and the result was the organization of a Republican Ministry under Jules Simon, one of the Moderate Republican leaders. This produced quiet for a time; and affairs seemed to work smoothly until May, 1877, when President MacMahon, who was in sympathy with the Monarchist faction, determined to check the advancing spirit of Republicanism.

On the 8th of May, 1877, the French

Chamber of Deputies had a tumultuous session. Jules Simon was attacked by the Bonapartists, and angry debates ensued. On the 15th, May, 1877, the Chamber of Deputies voted to repeal the Press Law of 1875; whereupon President MacMahon wrote to Jules Simon, opposing the repeal of the law. In consequence of this letter, Jules Simon and his Cabinet tendered their resignations. In a general meeting of the Republican Deputies, in the Grand Hotel in Paris, a resolution was passed declaring the Chamber's want of confidence in a Monarchist Cabinet. On leaving the meeting, M. Gambetta, the talented young Republican leader, was loudly cheered by the populace. He addressed them, recommending calmness and moderation, and declaring his confidence in the final triumph of Republicanism. The multitude responded with shouts of "Vive Gambetta!" "Vive la République!" The Republican Union afterward met and confirmed the action of the meeting. The first intelligence of the crisis produced dismay throughout Paris, and fears were entertained for the peace of the French Republic. In the Chamber of Deputies, on the 17th, May, 1877, a resolution declaring the Chamber's lack of confidence in a Ministry not governing in accordance with Republican principles, was adopted by a vote of three hundred and fifty-five against one hundred and fifty-four. M. Gambetta made a speech expressing France's wish for a definitive Republic. The speech was loudly cheered, amid the greatest excitement.

President MacMahon proceeded to the formation of a Ministry composed of Monarchists, with the Duke de Broglie at its head. The new Ministry proceeded to the removal of the Republican Prefects from the Departments, and the appointment of Monarchists in their stead. On the 18th, May, 1877, President MacMahon sent a message to the Chambers proroguing both Chambers for one month. There was great excitement and confusion in both Chambers. The Republicans of both Chambers issued spirited addresses to the French people. The crisis was regarded as serious for France.

In the Chamber of Deputies, on the 16th of June, 1877, M. de Fourtou, the new French Minister of the Interior, read a declaration announcing that President MacMahon had sent a message to the Senate informing that body of his intention to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, by virtue of the power conferred upon him by the Fifth Article of the Constitution, and demanding the concurrence of the Senate. A violent discussion ensued, and was continued for several days; the Republicans severely censuring, and the Monarchists sustaining, the President's action. M. Gambetta remarked that the Republican majority in the Chamber would go to the country numbering three hundred and sixty-three, and return four hundred strong, and that the triumph of the Monarchists would lead to civil war. At the close of his speech, M. Gambetta fainted. Jules Simon made a scathing attack on the government. The Chamber refused to vote direct taxes, but unanimously voted supplementary grants for the conduct of the public service. In the Chamber of Deputies, on June 25th, M. Grévy, the President of the Chamber, read the decree formally dissolving the Chamber, and intimating that the elections would be held within an interval of three months. The Republican Senators issued a declaration, saying that the reelection of the three hundred and sixty-three Republicans of the Chamber of Deputies was a duty incumbent upon the country, as a solemn affirmation of its intention to maintain Republican principles at home and peace abroad. It was decided to hold the elections on September 16th, and to convene the new Chamber on October 8th.

The Ministry endeavored to carry the elections by a wholesale persecution of Republicans. Republican officials were removed, and the press was muzzled. On August 28, 1877, the Public Prosecutor issued a summons upon M. Gambetta ordering him to appear to answer for certain remarks in a speech at Lille; and several weeks afterward he was sentenced to three months imprisonment and to pay a fine of

two thousand francs. The Republicans now suffered an irreparable loss; their trusted leader, M. Thiers, suddenly dying of apoplexy, at St. Germain, September 2, 1877, and being mourned by the friends of liberty in France and throughout the world.

The remains of Ex-President Thiers were honored with the most magnificent funeral obsequies in Paris, the people lining the streets as the funeral procession passed; but the French government caused the streets to be lined with soldiers, to prevent any extensive Republican demonstrations in honor of the great statesman and champion of liberty.

On September 21st an address was issued to the French people, signed by a number of Parisian and Provincial Deputies, representing all shades of French Republicanism, and reminding the people of the duty of returning the three hundred and sixty-three Republican Deputies. At the second trial of M. Gambetta, on September 22d, on appeal from his previous sentence of three months' imprisonment and two thousand francs fine, his counsel argued that the tribunal was incompetent. The court rejected the plea, and confirmed the sentence at the first trial.

The *Bien Public* was seized on October 23d for reporting M. Gambetta's trial. The *Official Journal* published a circular of the Minister of Justice, giving instructions that all electoral addresses be carefully read, in order to prevent outrages against the President, violent measures, or falsehoods. The *Official Journal* also published a decree ordering elections for Deputies on October 14th and the summoning of the extra Chamber of Deputies on November 7th.

The Republican committee of the Ninth Arrondissement of Paris, of which Victor Hugo was honorary, and M. Gambetta acting president, formally nominated M. Jules Grévy to the place filled by M. Thiers as head of the French Democratic party and leader of the three hundred and sixty-three Republican Deputies. On October 2d M. Gambetta formally lodged an appeal against the sentence passed upon him by the Correctional Tribunal. A manifesto to the

French nation, found among M. Thiers's papers after his death, was published by the Republicans. The Royalists denied the authenticity of the document; and the government telegraphed instructions to the Prefects of the Departments, interdicting the colportage or placarding of M. Thiers's posthumous address. The feeling between the Monarchical and Republican parties in the remote provincial districts of France was as bitter as that of two hostile nations ready to come to blows.

The government placed in nomination an "official list" of candidates for election to the Chamber of Deputies, and placards were issued by the Prefects of the Departments for posting in the various *arrondissements*. The placards were headed "Candidate of the Government of Marshal MacMahon, President of the Republic." The government's candidates were divided into one hundred and thirty-one Legitimists, eighty-three Orleanists, and two hundred and ninety-eight Bonapartists; about twenty *arrondissements* being without any "official candidates."

On November 7, 1877, M. Gambetta issued a manifesto to the electors of the Twentieth Arrondissement of Paris, in which he enumerated the despotic acts and violent measures of the government to carry the elections in favor of the Monarchical party. The manifesto censured the licensed violence of the reactionary press and the muzzling of the Republican press, and advised the utmost discretion on the part of the Republicans. M. Gambetta was prosecuted for placarding his manifesto to the electors of the Twentieth Arrondissement of Paris on the streets, and the printer of the manifesto was summoned before the Correctional Tribunal. At a Republican meeting on October 9th M. Gambetta made a speech urging upon the French people the necessity of returning the Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

On October 11th President MacMahon issued a manifesto, appealing to the French people to support the government candidates in the interest of social order, which he represented as seriously threatened by the prev-

alence of radical ideas, and denying that the government contemplated the subversion of the Constitution of the Republic, or that peace with foreign powers was in danger from the success of the government candidates. The President's manifesto concluded as follows: "I answer for order and peace." The bureau of the Republican Senators issued a counter-manifesto, asking the French people to disbelieve those who asserted that republican institutions were not in danger, and that the government was not acting under the influence of the priests. The Republican counter-manifesto declared the "official candidates" enemies to the Republic.

The elections in France for Deputies were held on Sunday, October 14, 1877, and resulted in a great Republican victory, though the former Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies was considerably reduced. In the former Chamber there were three hundred and sixty-three Republicans and one hundred and seventy Monarchists, the Republicans having a majority of one hundred and ninety-three. The new election resulted in the choice of three hundred and twenty Republicans and two hundred and thirteen Monarchists, leaving a Republican majority of one hundred and seven. The result of the election did not produce quiet, as both parties appeared very uncompromising. The Republicans threatened to annul all of those elections which resulted in the success of the government candidates through government pressure, while the Monarchists threatened another dissolution in case the Republicans attempted to execute their threat. The government journals declared that the Ministry would neither submit to the popular verdict as expressed in the elections, nor resign; and the Republicans threatened to refuse to vote the budget in case a Republican Cabinet was not appointed. The crisis appeared serious, and civil war was threatened. The idea, however, of invalidating the elections of the government candidates by wholesale was abandoned by the Republicans; and it was determined to annul only those elections which were palpably vitiated. In a speech

at Chateau-Chinon, Department of Nierve, M. Gambetta violently denounced the government electoral maneuvers, declaring that but for fraud and robbery four hundred Republicans would have been returned to the Chamber of Deputies. He made a bitter attack on the Bonapartists, and declared that the Republicans desired order with progress, but that they had no subversive aims.

In the election for Councils-General, on November 4, 1877, the Republicans made immense gains; and when the second ballots were completed, the Republicans had the majority in forty-nine, and the Monarchists in thirty-seven Departments. In an interview with a delegation of Monarchical Deputies on November 6th, President MacMahon fully intimated that he was resolved not to resign. The Duke de Broglie's Ministry several times tendered their resignations, but remained at the President's request.

The French Senate and Chamber of Deputies met on November 7, 1877; and M. Jules Grévy, the Republican leader, was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of two hundred and ninety against one hundred and seventy. There was intense excitement in Paris, and both parties seemed uncompromising. The Monarchists appeared determined to rule, in spite of the expressed will of the French people. The Legitimists and Orleanists, alarmed at the increasing strength and boldness of the Bonapartists, seemed disposed to break away from the Monarchical coalition. The Bonapartists and Legitimists, however, threatened, if their elections were invalidated by wholesale, to resign in a body, and thus furnish the Senate with a pretext for a fresh dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies; but the Orleanist members of the Senate refused to sanction another dissolution, and thus the Duke de Broglie and M. de Fourtou were baffled in their reactionary schemes. In the Chamber of Deputies, on November 12th, the Republican Deputy, M. Albert Grévy, brother to M. Jules Grévy, the President of the

Chamber, introduced a resolution of inquiry into electoral abuses. The resolution produced a violent debate, which continued for several days; M. Gambetta and M. Jules Ferry sustaining the motion for inquiry; and M. de Fourtou, Minister of the Interior, opposing the motion, and defending the course of the government during the electoral contest. M. Albert Grévy's resolution was passed, and a committee of inquiry was appointed.

The Duke de Broglie's Ministry resigned on November 16, 1877, the Orleanist Senators having refused to sustain it any longer. Thirty Orleanist Senators waited upon the President of the Republic on November 15th, and assured him of their devotion, but declared they could not support the Cabinet in a policy of resistance to the national will. The Orleanist Senators, in a preliminary meeting of the Senate, on November 16th, declared that the salvation of the country was at stake, and refused to sanction another dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies. President MacMahon accepted the resignation of the Duke de Broglie and his colleagues, and set about the formation of a new Cabinet, composed of Legitimists and Bonapartists, who, however, promised to govern in accordance with Republican principles.

In the Senate, on November 19, 1877, M. Arago, Republican, moved the previous question in regard to M. de Kerdrel's interpellation as to how the Ministers had instructed officials to act with regard to the electoral inquiry voted for by the Chamber of Deputies, on the ground that it was unconstitutional and an encroachment on the rights of the Chamber of Deputies. M. Arago's motion was rejected by a vote of one hundred and fifty-five to one hundred and thirty. M. de Kerdrel and the Duke de Broglie, on the Royalist side, sustained the interpellation; while M. Laboulaye and M. Dufaure, on the Republican side, opposed it, as an encroachment on the rights of the Chamber of Deputies. Despite M. Dufaure's appeal, an attempt of the Republicans to shelve the discussion by proposing an order of the day

pure and simple was defeated by a vote of one hundred and fifty-three to one hundred and thirty-six, and the order of the day proposed by the Monarchists was passed by a vote of one hundred and fifty-one to one hundred and twenty-nine.

In Paris the *Republique Française*, Gambetta's organ, declared that, in view of the Senate's pretensions and the President's refusal to change his policy, it became the clear duty of the Chamber of Deputies to refuse to vote the budget. The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies, on November 21st, elected M. Gambetta president. In a speech on the occasion, M. Gambetta reminded the committee that they were armed with the sanction of the national sovereignty, for which it was their duty to secure a triumph.

The refusal of President MacMahon to select a Republican Ministry prolonged the political crisis in France. The Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies refused to vote the direct taxes so long as the President retained a Ministry in which the Chambers had no confidence. The Republican majority, however, consented to vote the indirect taxes, but only by installments. The Ministry recently formed, not possessing the confidence of the country and the Chamber of Deputies, resigned on December 7th; and, after several ineffectual attempts to form a compromise Ministry, M. Dufaure undertook the formation of a Republican Ministry.

The triumph of the Republicans in the crisis of 1877 was a great one for France, and the country enjoyed some rest from political excitement under M. Dufaure's Republican Cabinet. On September 18, 1878, M. Gambetta made a speech at Romans denouncing clericalism, which, while applauded by the Radical Republican press, made the Moderate Republicans feel uneasy, as they feared that the enemies of the Republic would seize upon it as a pretext to alarm the conservative classes by attempting to make it appear revolutionary. On October 12, 1878, M. Gambetta made a speech at Grenoble which greatly pleased

the Moderate Republicans. He declared his belief in the necessity of the Senate, minimized his former utterances regarding clericalism, and made a dexterous and effective appeal to the municipal delegates, who form a majority of the Senatorial electors, to return Republican candidates to the Senate. M. Gambetta predicted a Republican majority of twenty in the new French Senate.

On Sunday, October 27, 1878, elections were held for municipal delegates in seventeen thousand Communes of France, resulting in great Republican gains, leaving no doubt of the Senatorial elections on the 5th of January, 1879. These elections settled the fact that the Republicans would carry forty-six of the seventy-five Senatorships to be filled, being a gain of twenty-eight. The French Assembly met early in November, 1878. After a long and animated debate and many calls to order, the Chamber of Deputies, on November 7, 1878, declared the election of M. Paul de Cassagnac, a violent Bonapartist, invalid.

The Senatorial elections which took place in France on Sunday, January 5, 1879, resulted in a great Republican triumph. The Republican gains were far beyond the most sanguine expectations. Of forty-seven Conservative Senators whose terms expired, only thirteen were reelected. All the retiring Republican Senators were reelected. The general result showed the election of fifteen Conservatives and sixty-four Republicans, thus making the Republican majority in the Senate about fifty-seven. Second ballots were necessary in the Departments of Haute-Garonne and Landes. The Paris press agreed that the result of the elections was a crushing blow to the Bonapartists, and a great triumph for the Moderate Republicans.

The French Assembly reassembled on January 14, 1879. M. Jules Grévy, the Republican leader, was reelected President of the Chamber of Deputies almost unanimously. Three of the Vice-Presidents were Republicans, and one was a Conservative. On the following day, January 15, 1879,

Louis Joseph Martel, a Republican Senator, was elected President of the Senate by a majority of seventy-two.

A Cabinet crisis was now imminent at Versailles. On January 14, 1879, General Borel, Minister of War, resigned, and General Gresley was appointed his successor. The Radical Republicans demanded the formation of a new Cabinet. The Republican Union opposed the Ministerial programme. When the Ministerial declaration was read in the Assembly, it was coldly received in the Chamber of Deputies, but was applauded by the Republican Senators. The political situation in France was now regarded as critical, and the opposition of the Republicans to the appointment of General Gresley as Minister of War was very strong.

The Ministerial crisis in France continued for several days. The debate in the Chamber of Deputies on the Cabinet question began on January 20, 1879. The Conservatives had resolved to abstain from voting. The Moderate Republicans seemed disposed to support the Cabinet, but the Radical Republicans appeared inclined to oppose the Ministry. The Republicans had prepared two orders of the day; one expressing confidence in the Ministry, to be brought forward if the declaration of M. Dufaure was satisfactory; and the other expressing a want of confidence, should the Ministerial statement appear insufficient. These orders were intrusted to M. Jules Ferry. Among the Republican majority there was a desire to support the Ministry if the declaration should prove sufficient. The debate in the Chamber of Deputies was opened by M. Senard, a veteran Republican, who opposed the Ministerial programme. M. Dufaure, President of the Ministry, replied, defending his policy. M. Madier de Montjau, a Radical Republican, made a bitter attack on the Ministry, and was followed by M. Floquet, the orator of the Republican Union, who made a mild speech in favor of a Ministry representing all sections of the Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies. A suspension of the sitting of the Chamber followed, during which the government ef-

ected a compromise with the Radical Republicans, thus securing a majority for the Ministry. In consequence of this result, M. Jules Ferry offered his motion expressing confidence in the Ministry, and the motion was adopted by a vote of two hundred and twenty-three to one hundred and twenty-one. On January 23, 1879, M. Teisserenc de Bort resigned the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

At a Cabinet Council at Versailles, on January 28, 1879, President MacMahon signed a decree making changes in the magistracy, but he refused to assent to any changes in the great military commands, and then quitted the Council. This refusal of the President produced the greatest excitement in France. In the Chamber of Deputies, on January 30, 1879, M. Jules Grévy, the President of the Chamber, amid profound silence, read a letter from President MacMahon, announcing his resignation of the Presidency of the French Republic.

M. Grévy then read the articles of the Constitution applicable to the situation, and announced that the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies would meet together in Congress at 4.30 p. m. The sitting was then suspended. The two Chambers met in Congress at the appointed hour; and M. Martel, President of the Senate, presided over the Congress, and opened the proceedings by again reading President MacMahon's letter of resignation and the articles of the Constitution, amid profound silence. M. de Gavardie, a Senator, amid shouts of disapprobation, asked whether the Congress accepted the resignation of President MacMahon. The Congress set this inquiry aside by voting the previous question by a large majority. The Congress, after appointing tellers, proceeded at five o'clock to vote for President of the Republic. Of the seven hundred and thirteen Senators and Deputies, six hundred and seventy voted. M. Jules Grévy obtained five hundred and thirty-six votes, and General de Chanzy ninety-nine. M. Grévy was accordingly declared elected, and was proclaimed President of the French Republic for the term of

seven years. Forty-three blank voting papers were deposited. M. Dufaure, the President of the Ministry, and Victor Hugo were loudly cheered when they cast their votes; while the Duke de Broglie, Baragnon, Buffet and other Monarchists were hooted. The result was announced at 7.45 p. m. Amid a perfect frenzy of enthusiasm, the Republican Senators and Deputies and the public in the galleries, rising in a body, repeatedly shouted: "Vive la République!"

Shortly afterward the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies resumed their separate sittings. M. Bethmont took the chair



PRESIDENT JULES GRÉVY.

in the Chamber of Deputies, and read a letter from M. Jules Grévy, who expressed the profound regret with which he resigned his seat as a Deputy, and thanked his colleagues for the sympathy with which they had honored and would continue to honor him. In the evening of the same day, January 30, 1879, Ex-President MacMahon visited President Grévy and congratulated him upon his election. The interview was most courteous. The same evening the Ministers congratulated President Grévy, and collectively tendered their resignations; but

M. Grévy expressed a hope that they would continue in office, at least provisionally. A notification of M. Grévy's election to the Presidency of the French Republic was telegraphed to all foreign governments the same night.

The day after M. Grévy's election to the Presidency of the French Republic, January 31, 1879, M. Gambetta was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies by three hundred and fourteen votes out of four hundred and five. In the morning of the same day a Cabinet Council was held at M. Grévy's private residence. There was a general feeling of gratification throughout France at the issue of the crisis, and flags were flying in many parts of Paris. The Paris press, on the morning of January 31, 1879, congratulated the country upon the consolidation of the Republic. The *Journal de Debats* said: "The Republic has passed through a formidable crisis, and has emerged from it more firmly consolidated." The *Republique Française* said: "What has passed may be summed up by saying, since yesterday we have a Republic." The London press unanimously congratulated France upon the change in the Presidency, and the Berlin press also generally approved of M. Grévy's election. On February 4, 1879, a new Cabinet, with M. Waddington at its head, was constituted.

SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

For some years the doctrine of Socialism, or a reorganization of society on a Communitistic basis, had been growing in Germany. German Socialism was founded by Lassalle in 1864. The general prostration of all industries, and the consequent distress among the lower classes of the population, which had for several years prevailed in Germany, made the German people discontented with existing institutions. This discontent was increased by the heavy burden imposed upon the country by a gigantic military establishment. The German army consisted of nineteen hundred thousand men on a war footing, and four hundred and one thousand on a peace footing. The withdrawal of so many

men from useful occupations was a heavy strain upon the resources of the Empire. The prevalent discontent among the German masses tended to the growth of Socialistic ideas.

Bismarck was a believer in strong government and no friend of popular rights. In a speech in the German Federal Diet in 1848, he said: "All great cities should be swept from the face of the earth, because they are the centers of democracy and constitutionalism."

The prevailing discontent in Germany led to several attempts by Socialists to assassinate the Emperor William I., who was already eighty-one years of age. On May 11, 1878, while the aged Emperor was riding in his carriage in the Avenue Unter den Linden, in Berlin, he was fired at twice by a tinsmith from Leipsic, named Hoedel, aged twenty-one years. Both shots missed; and Hoedel ran into the Middle Avenue, followed by a crowd. After firing three shots at his pursuers, he was arrested. Socialist documents were found in his possession. The city was soon greatly excited; and dense masses thronged the streets, testifying their respect for their aged and beloved Emperor. Great crowds assembled in front of the imperial palace, singing the national anthem and manifesting their loyalty and sympathy; and the venerated Emperor showed himself several times in acknowledgment of their expression of sympathy. Members of the Ministry, foreign ambassadors and German army officers hastened to the palace to tender their congratulations upon the Emperor's escape. In the evening the Emperor went to the opera and the royal theater and received great ovations. After three months Hoedel was tried and convicted, and was beheaded August 17, 1878, dying with firmness and shouting: "Bravo!"

Hoedel's attempt proved that Socialism was deeply rooted in Germany, and Socialistic meetings were prohibited by the government. The Ministry presented a bill in the German Reichstag for the repression of Socialistic excesses; but this bill was defeated by the Liberal majority in the

Reichstag, because it curtailed liberty of speech and of the press.

Another attempt was made to assassinate the Emperor William I. in Berlin, on Sunday, June 2, 1878, by Dr. Nobiling, who, as the octogenarian Emperor was riding in his carriage in the Avenue Unter den Linden—the scene of Hoedel's attack—fired at him twice from a double-barreled gun, from a house in the avenue. The Emperor received about thirty small shot in the face, body, arms and back. He felt great pain, but no serious apprehensions were felt as to his condition. Nobiling fired with a revolver upon persons attempting to arrest him, and then inflicted several serious wounds upon his own head. When asked why he attempted to kill the Emperor he said: "The people have done away with God and want no more kings." He was thirty-two years of age, in comfortable circumstances, well educated, and held a diploma of Doctor of Philology. He resided in Berlin and frequented Socialist clubs. This second attempt to assassinate the Emperor caused a profound sensation in Berlin and throughout Germany. The people of Berlin were greatly excited, and made warm manifestations of their regard for their venerable and beloved sovereign. Vast crowds assembled in front of the imperial palace, making anxious inquiries as to the Emperor's condition; and it was only by the almost superhuman efforts of the police that Nobiling, while being carried a prisoner to the police-station, escaped the fury of the enraged populace, who demanded the would-be-assassin's life. The crowd forced its way into the palace, and only dispersed on receiving satisfactory news of the Emperor's condition. Loyal and sympathetic demonstrations in favor of the wounded Emperor were made throughout the Empire. The Emperor rapidly recovered from his wounds. After three months, Nobiling died of his self-inflicted wounds, September 10, 1878.

In consequence of these two attempts at regicide, the German government contemplated repressive measures; and, although the National Liberals now promised to support any bill to suppress Socialism, Prince

Bismarck dissolved the Reichstag and ordered new elections, with the view of securing a reactionary majority to support any measure which the government might propose. The National Liberals made a determined effort to return their majority. The German government closed all Socialist meetings; and Herr Johann Most, a Socialist member of the Reichstag, was sentenced to six months' imprisonment for persisting in addressing a Socialist meeting at Chemnitz after the police had declared it closed.

The elections for the new Reichstag were held July 31, 1878, and resulted in the choice of one hundred and ten National Liberals, ninety three Conservatives, ninety-six Ultramontanes and thirty-five members of various other parties. The Liberals lost thirty seats, though they still had a plurality. There was an immense increase in the Socialist vote, the party polling over seven hundred thousand votes. Sixty-six second ballots were necessary, as in that many cases there had been no definite results. The supplementary elections for the Reichstag were all over by the beginning of September, 1878. The total result was that the Ultramontanes gained six seats and the Conservatives forty; while the National Liberals lost twenty-nine, the Progressists thirteen, and the Social Democrats four; the Social Democrats having elected but eight members of the new Reichstag.

The new Reichstag convened in September, 1878, and Prince Bismarck immediately introduced a stringent measure for the suppression of Socialism. Debate on the Anti-Socialist bill opened in the Reichstag on September 16th; when Herr Reichensperger, Ultramontane, and Herr Bebel, Socialist, made speeches denouncing the bill; while Herr Bamberger, Liberal, Count von Eulenberg and Count Stolberg spoke in favor of the measure. The next day Prince Bismarck made an energetic speech in defense of the bill. The bill was debated about a month before its final passage.

On October 10, 1878, during the debate on the Anti-Socialist bill, Herr Hasselmann, a well known Socialist agitator, made a vio-

lent speech in the Reichstag, beginning and ending with threats of violence and bloodshed as results of repressive legislation. The President of the Reichstag called Herr Hasselmann to order, saying that his speech was an incitement to rebellion. Herr Hasselmann repeated his words, and was again called to order amid long and indignant protests. He uttered these words: "I am not personally in favor of revolution. I prefer pacific means; but, if we are forced to fight, we shall know how to fight; and I shall be proud to lay down my life on the field of honor. Let Prince Bismarck remember the 18th of March, 1848." Herren Lowe and Benningsen denounced the purposes and methods of Socialism, and defended repressive legislation.

The Reichstag finally passed the Anti-Socialist bill October 19, 1878, by a vote of two hundred and twenty-one against one hundred and forty-nine. The Conservatives and the National Liberals, with some independent Liberals, voted for the bill. Prince Bismarck then read the message closing the Reichstag. He said that the government, armed with this measure, would make a determined effort to cure the prevalent disease. If they were not able to succeed in two years and a half, the government hoped to obtain further concessions. Pursuant to the provisions of the Anti-Socialist law, the police of Berlin dissolved four Socialist clubs in that city.

In January, 1879, Prince Bismarck introduced a Parliamentary Discipline Bill into the Reichstag; but, after a long debate, the Reichstag rejected this bill. On February 19, 1879, Herr Lasker, Liberal, presented a motion in the Reichstag denying that the government could arrest members of the Reichstag under the Anti-Socialist law. Herren Lasker and Rickert spoke in support of the motion. The Minister of Justice and Federal Councilor Friedberg supported the government's interpretation of the law; but, after a long debate, Herr Lasker's motion was adopted by a large majority, only the Conservatives and the Imperialists voting against it. Several weeks later, March 10,

1879, angry words passed between Prince Bismarck and Herr Lasker in the Reichstag; and Bismarck left the Chamber several times during the day, to avoid listening to the speeches of his opponents.

One week afterward, March 17, 1879, during a debate in the Reichstag on the report of the government's action in instituting a petty state of siege in Berlin, Herr Liebnicht, a Socialist, strongly censured the measure, pronouncing it wholly unjustifiable. He declared that the Socialists were a party of reform, not of revolution. He defended the course of the Socialist Deputies in not rising from their seats when cheers were given for the Emperor. The President of the Reichstag, amid cheers, remarked that this conduct offended the moral sense of the Chamber. Herr Liebnicht continued: "If a republic is established in Germany—" He was unable to finish the sentence, in consequence of the uproar which his words provoked. The President of the Reichstag threatened to deprive him of his right of speech. Count von Eulenberg, Minister of the Interior, declared that the state of siege in Berlin was absolutely necessary to the public safety; and the Reichstag took formal cognizance of the report concerning the state of siege.

SOCIALISM IN OTHER QUARTERS.

During the fall of 1878 Socialistic attempts were made to assassinate King Alfonso of Spain and King Humbert of Italy. On January 12, 1879, Pope Leo XIII. issued an encyclical inveighing against Socialism, Communism and Nihilism, ascribing the existence of the new dogmas to the Protestant Reformation, which opened the way to skepticism in religion and to civil and social disorganization by preparing the way for freedom of thought and opinion.

NIHILISM IN RUSSIA.

While Socialism was growing in Germany, a far more radical and revolutionary doctrine, called Nihilism, was making rapid progress in Russia among all classes of the population, even among the aristocracy

and the army, as well as among the peasant class. In April, 1878, Nihilist outbreaks were feared at Moscow and Kiev, and troops were sent to strengthen the garrisons at those places. About this time, April, 1878, a young maiden, named Vera Sassulitch, attempted to assassinate General Trepoff, Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, in revenge for his cruel flogging of a Nihilist. She was tried for this attempt; and, notwithstanding her known guilt, she was acquitted by the jury. The government, unwilling to abide by the verdict, declared that in future such cases should not be tried by jury. The Public Prosecutor appealed from the verdict; and the Supreme Court of St. Petersburg declared the trial null and void, on the ground of informality of procedure, and ordered that a new trial take place at Novgorod; but Vera Sassulitch had, in the meantime, escaped. After her acquittal, the police attempted to rearrest her, but were frustrated by a crowd; and a riot ensued. The maiden was seized by the police disguised as medical students, and was to be transported to Siberia; but, by bribing the police, she succeeded in making her escape, in the disguise of a Sister of Charity, and found her way to Geneva, in Switzerland, where a supper was given in her honor by a number of Russian and other exiles. In a speech before these exiles, she said that she had given herself, body and soul, to the cause of revolution, and that, in her opinion, its triumph was not far distant. The Russian people, she said, were fast becoming undeceived; the blood that had been spilled in the late Russo-Turkish war was the last that would be shed in combats instigated by the ambition of princes; the next struggle would be that of the people against kings. The other speeches at the supper were of a violent character. The authorities at Geneva, uneasy at Vera Sassulitch's presence, compelled her to leave Switzerland; whereupon she went to Paris.

In the meantime Baron Heyking, Prefect of Police at Kiev, was stabbed to death, while walking in the streets of that city; and the assassin succeeded in making his

escape, shooting one of his pursuers. Baron Heyking had made himself hated on account of his severity—secret whippings of Nihilists for imprudent language being frequent at Kiev. On August 16, 1878, General Mezentzoff, the successor of General Trepoff as Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, was fatally stabbed in a public square in that city, dying shortly afterward. Upon committing their bloody deed, the assassins, brandishing their weapons, jumped into a conveyance and escaped. The assassination of General Mezentzoff caused intense excitement in the Russian capital. It was supposed that the act was committed in revenge for the execution of Hoedel at Berlin, which occurred on the same day. It was known that there was a bond of sympathy between the Communists of France, the Socialists of Germany and the Nihilists of Russia. On August 27, 1878, a Russian imperial ukase was issued at St. Petersburg, temporarily remitting crimes against the state and attacks upon officials to court-martial.

In December, 1878, a mysterious struggle occurred between the Russian government and the students of St. Petersburg, Kiev and Charkoff. On December 12th several hundred students assembled before the Czarewitch's palace to present a petition. The Czarewitch being absent, Selo, the Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, received the petition, and ordered the crowd to disperse, saying that it was illegal to present a petition in such a manner. The students refusing to disperse, half a squadron of gendarmes were summoned, and one hundred and forty-two students were arrested and lodged in the barracks of the Moscow regiment. On December 14th the *Agence Russe* announced that, in consequence of illegal demonstrations by the students, the authorities had adopted certain measures for securing public order. The students were agitating for the liberation of their colleagues arrested at Charkoff, in connection with recent demonstrations caused by the introduction of an obnoxious regulation in reference to their studies. The agitation continued. On December 16th a

meeting was held to protest against the violence of the soldiery. The students complained that the Prefect of Police had promised to bring an answer to the petition calling attention to oppression of the students, and requesting the liberation of their colleagues arrested at Charkoff. Instead of any reply being given to the petition, the St. Petersburg colleges were surrounded by two thousand gendarmes and Cossacks, and two hundred arrests were made. The Cossacks used whips, and several students were injured. The drawbridge over the river Neva was removed, to prevent a thousand students from crossing to the south side. The lecture halls were closed; and meetings within the universities, as well as outside, were forbidden. The police were ordered to act within the universities, if requested to do so by the rectors. A proclamation was conspicuously posted, forbidding the carrying of arms in the St. Petersburg district, except by authorization. On December 30, 1878, a riot took place at Kiev, caused by the resistance of the students of the university at that place. The students, in a meeting held outside of the town, had decided to protest against the closing of the university. A body of armed men accordingly proceeded to the university, and forced their way in, after disarming the city police. They then fixed on a blackboard an energetic protest against the arbitrary proceedings of the authorities. Two companies of local militia tried to disperse the students, who resisted; whereupon a riot ensued, in which many persons were killed on both sides. A cavalry force succeeded in clearing the streets in front of the university, and many students were arrested. Similar riots, though on a smaller scale, occurred in other Russian towns. Orders were sent to the Russian police at the western frontier of Russia to redouble their vigilance, in order to stop the smuggling of revolutionary pamphlets into the country, a practice which had been going on on a large scale, and to prevent the entrance into Russia of revolutionary emissaries from Germany. Late in February, 1879, a serious riot occurred at Kiev, caused

by the attempt of the police to close a secret Nihilist printing establishment.

On the morning of April 14, 1879, as the Czar Alexander II. was walking near his palace in St. Petersburg, four shots were fired at him by a young schoolmaster named Alexander Solovieff, twenty-three years of age. The would-be-assassian fired at persons who attempted to arrest him, wounding a detective; but he was finally captured. The great throng of people which quickly assembled enthusiastically cheered and congratulated the Emperor, who thanked them for their fidelity on so painful an occasion. The Emperor then drove to the palace without escort; after which he drove, without escort, to the Kasan Cathedral, to return thanks for the preservation of his life. While receiving the congratulations of his officials at noon, the Czar was so overcome with emotion that he was unable to speak for some minutes. On recovering he exclaimed: "This is the third time that God has saved me!" All the European sovereigns, including the Sultan of Turkey, telegraphed their congratulations to the Czar upon his escape. Solovieff was tried, convicted, and finally hanged early in June.

In consequence of this attempted regicide, the Czar of Russia adopted the most vigorous and despotic repressive measures. He proclaimed martial law in six great centers of Russian population, including the cities of Moscow, Kiev, Warsaw, Charkoff, Odessa and St. Petersburg. Replying to a congratulatory address of the marshal of the nobility, the Czar said that he had been forced to adopt rigorous measures by the audacity of the revolutionists. Circulars were sent to the governors of all the Russian provinces, directing them to execute the orders of the newly appointed Governors-General. It was determined to send twelve hundred Nihilist prisoners from Novgorod to Siberia. In St. Petersburg one house after another was searched, and every person whose passport was irregular was arrested. Porters to guard the doors of houses and prevent the posting of placards, as required by General Gourkho's order, could not be found; as the

Nihilists threatened with death all who undertook the service. In St. Petersburg the police arrested people by batches at all hours of the day. On the slightest suspicion, whole families were arrested; and a large number of lodging-house keepers were imprisoned for not reporting, within twenty-four hours, their latest arrivals. There were few pedestrians or carriages in the streets; but an endless line of porters were seated on stools at every door, with stout sticks. Covered prison vans frequently passed with a police officer mounted beside the driver; and General Gourkho drove around in an open drosky, escorted by Cossacks, cracking their whips. On July 20, 1879, General Gourkho issued an order that premises on which presses for publishing revolutionary pamphlets were found be closed by the authorities, even if the proprietors were in no way connected with the illegal proceedings which had been carried on therein.

A Reign of Terror prevailed throughout the Russian Empire. In St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Charkoff, Odessa, Archangel and other large Russian cities, Nihilist outrages occurred. Military and police officials who caused Nihilists to be put to death, exiled or imprisoned, were cruelly tortured or assassinated, in accordance with the decrees of secret Nihilist tribunals. The revolutionary movement was gradually growing more formidable. Among the Nihilists were many of the Russian nobility and aristocracy, and many civil and military officials; and the female sex was as active and enthusiastic in the revolutionary movement as the male. Rigorous government officials seldom escaped assassination, while Nihilist assassins were seldom discovered. Nihilists were arrested by hundreds and thrown into prison, where they were starved to death; while large numbers were exiled to Siberia.

On the night of December 1, 1879, an unsuccessful attempt was made on the life of the Czar Alexander II., by blowing up the train in which the Czar was traveling from St. Petersburg on his way to visit Moscow. The Emperor's train reached Moscow in safety; but while the next train, which

was supposed to convey the Emperor, was approaching Moscow, a frightful explosion occurred, blowing a luggage van to pieces, and throwing seven carriages from the railway track, but nobody was injured. A mine of dynamite had been laid under the track to blow up the imperial train, and the Czar's escape was owing to the fact that his train had arrived half an hour earlier than the time announced. On the following day a deputation proceeded to the Kremlin to congratulate His Majesty upon his visit to Moscow. At noon on the same day the Emperor appeared in St. George's Hall, and was presented by the municipal authorities with bread and salt; whereupon he made a speech, thanking the people for their loyal attachment to their sovereign. The Czar's words were loudly cheered. There were great rejoicings in Moscow and St. Petersburg upon the Emperor's escape. When the Czar returned to St. Petersburg, on December 4, 1879, he was enthusiastically cheered by great crowds in the streets.

Numerous arrests were again made in St. Petersburg, and great excitement prevailed in the city. The gendarme and police forces were largely augmented, and they incessantly patrolled the streets, while great precautions were also taken to guard the Winter Palace. General Gourkho, Governor-General of St. Petersburg, ordered every householder to display a red lamp before his door nightly, containing the number of the house. Nihilists were also arrested, tried, convicted and hanged at Odessa, Kiev and other cities.

The Nihilists were as active as ever. On the day of the Czar's return to St. Petersburg the Revolutionary Committee issued a most violent proclamation, which was distributed daily, and in which they avowed that the late attempt on the Czar's life was made by their order, and that the attempt would be made again. The Revolutionary journal, *The Will of the People*, was distributed in St. Petersburg and in other parts of Russia.

The Russian government, in its desperate efforts to crush out the Nihilists, had ex-

hausted all the available resources at its command. The police force and gendarmes had been largely increased; new and stringent regulations had been enforced concerning passports, the sale or possession of arms, gunpowder or explosive materials; the civil laws had been suspended and martial law proclaimed; and shooting and wholesale banishment had been resorted to—all without any effective result. The Czar now applied spiritual weapons against the Nihilists, and the clergy throughout the Russian Empire were instructed to curse and anathematize the revolutionists. In pursuance of orders from the Czar, the Russian Synod issued an ecclesiastical manifesto to be read in the Russian churches, consigning the revolutionary party to eternal punishment, and declaring it to be the sacred duty of all Russian subjects to obey the behests of the Lord's anointed.

On the evening of February 17, 1880, an abortive attempt was made to kill the Russian imperial family by laying a mine of dynamite in the Winter Palace. The mine was laid under the guard-room of the Winter Palace, which is immediately under the dining-hall. Owing to accidental delay, the imperial family had not entered the dining-hall at the usual time. The explosion made a hole in the floor of the dining-hall fifteen feet long and twelve feet wide. The explosion occurred at the usual dinner hour of the imperial family, and had the family not been delayed they would have perished. Nine soldiers were killed and forty-five wounded. The Governor-General and police authorities of St. Petersburg received notices from a Nihilist committee, informing them that they need not trouble themselves about making arrangements for an illumination on the occasion of the Czar's anniversary, as the revolutionists were preparing for such an illumination as had not been seen since Nero burned Rome.

On February 25, 1880, the Czar Alexander II. issued an imperial ukase appointing General Loris Melikoff virtual Dictator of Russia, conferring upon him the most despotic powers. Melikoff was made the Head

of a Supreme Executive Commission for the maintenance of law and order. The Head of the Commission had direct control over all political trials in the Russian Empire. All local authorities, Governors-General and town commandants were placed under the jurisdiction of the Head of the Commission. The Head of the Commission was at liberty to adopt any measures he deemed necessary for the preservation of order in the Empire, and his orders were to be implicitly obeyed. The office of Provisional Governor of St. Petersburg was abolished. Upon assuming office, General Melikoff issued a proclamation announcing his intention to adopt the most stringent measures for the preservation of order and the punishment of criminals. The appointment of General Melikoff as virtual Dictator of Russia created a good impression in St. Petersburg; as he was known to be mild, liberal and conciliatory, as well as an efficient executive. Melikoff's favorite maxim was that "power does not lie in force, but in love."

On March 2, 1880, there was a most magnificent celebration in St. Petersburg of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Czar's accession to the Russian throne. The city was gayly decorated, and the day was observed as a general holiday. The most impressive ceremonies were performed, amid great popular rejoicings and enthusiastic cheering by the vast multitudes in the streets. There were also fêtes and festivities in all the great cities of the Russian Empire.

On March 3, 1880, General Loris Melikoff, the Head of the Supreme Executive Commission, was fired at by a young man with a revolver, as he was alighting from a carriage at his residence. General Melikoff was not hurt. The would-be-assassin attempted to fire a second shot before he was seized, but was prevented by a blow from General Melikoff. The would-be-assassin, who was a young Jew from Minsk, named Vladetsky, was tried and condemned by a court-martial the next day, March 4, 1880, and hanged the day after, March 5, 1880. The culprit was defiant, and said at his trial

that General Melikoff would be killed by somebody.

General Melikoff adopted a mild and conciliatory policy, and inaugurated wise reforms. Many political prisoners were liberated; expelled students were readmitted to the universities; many persons were freed from police surveillance; the infamous Third Section was abolished; the system of wholesale arrests was abandoned; and the press was allowed greater freedom.

Notwithstanding General Melikoff's conciliatory policy, Nihilist criminals were rigorously punished. The Nihilists who were implicated in the attempts on the Czar's life were hanged, and about ten thousand out of twelve thousand Nihilist prisoners in the Moscow prison were banished to Siberia. Stringent rules were adopted for the Russian universities; the students being forbidden to belong to societies of any kind, hold meetings, complain or orally disapprove of existing regulations, give private lessons, or have their lectures printed. The political prisoners at Kiev were shot down, while attempting to escape. Incendiary fires broke out in every great Russian city during the spring and summer of 1880. The Empress Marie Alexandrovna, of Russia, died June 3, 1880; and on July 31, 1880, the Czar married the Princess Dolgorouki.

At two o'clock p. m., Sunday, March 13, 1881, while the Czar Alexander II. was returning from a military review at the Michael Palace, at St. Petersburg, a nitro-glycerine glass bomb thrown at his carriage exploded, smashing the whole back of the vehicle, whereupon the Czar jumped from the carriage to attend to the wounded of his escort. A second bomb thrown at the Emperor's feet exploded, nearly tearing off the right leg and badly shattering the left, crushing his right hand, breaking his marriage ring and driving it into the flesh, tearing his left eye from the socket, and making a deep gash in his abdomen. The wounded Emperor was conveyed unconscious in a sleigh to the Winter Palace, where he died in a few hours, after suffering in-

tense agony. The imperial family surrounded the Emperor's death-bed. The excitement in St. Petersburg was indescribable. The streets were thronged; and the most intense indignation against the assassins, and the most profound sympathy for the imperial family, were manifested. The soldiers, who loved the Czar, were furious in their rage against the assassins. The city was shrouded in mourning, and the church bells tolled. One of the assassins who threw the bombs—Nicolai Russakoff—was immediately arrested. The assassins were students disguised as peasants. Intelligence of the dreadful event was immediately telegraphed to all foreign courts and to every part of the Russian Empire. The Czar's assassination produced a profound feeling of grief and horror throughout the whole civilized world, and all the governments of Europe and that of the United States telegraphed their condolences to the Russian imperial family and the Russian people. The press of Europe and America were almost unanimous in their condemnation of the horrible deed. The news of the Czar's assassination was a terrible shock to his uncle, the venerable Emperor William I. of Germany. Queen Victoria became ill from grief. The different courts of Europe went in mourning for specified periods. Mr. Gladstone and Sir Stafford Northcote paid handsome eulogies to the dead Czar in the British House of Commons; and both Houses of Parliament unanimously adopted addresses to the queen, expressing their sentiments on the assassination.

On the day following the assassination, March 14, 1881, the late Emperor's son was proclaimed Emperor with the title of ALEXANDER III.; and immediately upon his accession he issued a manifesto to the Russian people. The imperial family, the court officials and the troops immediately swore allegiance to the new Emperor. When all the officers of the guards, civil officials and court dignitaries met at the Winter Palace to take the oath of allegiance, the new Emperor and Empress and the imperial family issued from the cabinet where the dead Czar's

body lay. In passing through St. George's Hall, on the way to the chapel, the new Emperor stopped before the Guard of Honor, and said with emotion: "I should not like my son to ascend the throne under such circumstances as these!"

The dead Emperor's body was embalmed March 15th, and lay in state in the chapel of the palace for fifteen days, all classes being permitted to view the remains. While the procession conveyed the remains to the church of the palace, the people in the halls knelt. On the arrival of the cortege at the church, mass for the dead was celebrated. The regalia was brought from Moscow and conveyed through the streets in state. It was decided to erect a church on the spot where the Czar's assassination occurred. Cypress trees were planted around the spot where the Czar fell, and sacred pictures with lamps burning before them were planted there. The students of the St. Petersburg and Moscow universities voted a silver wreath to be placed upon the murdered Czar's tomb. On Sunday, March 27, 1881—two weeks after the assassination—the remains of the Emperor Alexander II. were deposited in the imperial vault in the church of the Petropaulovsky fortress, amid salvos of artillery. The church was densely crowded, and the catafalque was strewn with flowers and wreaths.

A dynamite mine was discovered near the Annitchkoff palace, the residence of the new Czar. A revolutionary proclamation was discovered at Russakoff's domicile, declaring that the Nihilists would continue their work, and warning the new Emperor to beware of his father's fate. The Nihilist journal, *The Will of the People*, published a communication from the Nihilist Executive Committee, announcing that the sentence imposed upon Alexander II. by the Committee, August 26, 1879, had been executed March 13, 1881, after two years of effort and heavy sacrifices, and telling Alexander III. what punishment follows the crime of violating the national will. One night, as Alexander III. retired to rest, he discovered under his pillow a written communication

from the Nihilist Executive Committee, threatening him with the same tragic fate as his father if he did not grant representative government and a liberal constitution within six weeks from his accession.

At the beginning of April, 1881, measures were adopted by a Council of Twenty-five at St. Petersburg for keeping the movements of citizens under surveillance. The police were empowered to examine passengers on leaving railway stations; and cabmen were obliged to give the police a ticket, and were forbidden to drive elsewhere than to the address given on their engagement. All householders were requested to be at home to receive the police inspectors in the two hundred and twenty-eight districts of the city, and write down their votes; but instead of the streets being deserted, as they should have been, they were more thronged

than ever. Barriers were erected on all roads leading to St. Petersburg, to enable a record to be kept of all persons traveling to the city. An order was issued prohibiting the importation of easily inflammable substances. A military cordon surrounded St. Petersburg, and nobody was allowed to enter or leave the city. The new Council of Twenty-five invested the city with a chain of Cossack patrols, and with posts of officers and police on all the roads; so that ingress and egress of people were not allowed until subjected to

strict investigation by the commanders of the posts. No special passports were permitted. Other measures were adopted as precautions for the new Emperor's safety.

The preliminary investigation into the Czar's assassination resulted in arraigning the following persons as the Czar's regicides: Nicolai Russakoff, who confessed to throwing one of the bombs; Michaeloff; Jeliaboff; Kibaltschitsch, who confessed to making the bombs; and the two women, Hessa

Helfmann and Sophie Pieoffsky, the latter of whom was of noble birth and highly educated, and who gave the signal for throwing the bombs.

The trial of the Nihilist assassins began April 7, 1881. Sophie Pieoffsky and Jeliaboff confessed their guilt, boldly declaring that they actively participated in the preparation of the two mines and in the Czar's assassination. After a trial of three



THE EMPEROR ALEXANDER III. OF RUSSIA.

days, all the Nihilist prisoners charged with the assassination—Russakoff, Michaeloff, Jeliaboff, Kibaltschitsch, Sophie Pieoffsky and Hessa Helfmann—were convicted and condemned to death, April 10, 1881; and all, except Hessa Helfmann, were hanged April 15, 1881, in the presence of a vast multitude of spectators. Hessa Helfmann's execution was deferred, and her sentence was finally commuted to imprisonment for life. The Nihilist Committee issued a manifesto, April 17, 1881, extolling

the Nihilist regicides as martyrs, condemning the hanging of a woman, and warning the Czar of the disastrous consequences of a reactionary policy.

On May 11, 1881, the Czar Alexander III. issued a manifesto, reminding his subjects of the glorious government of his father and the great reforms he accomplished. He appealed to all faithful subjects to serve him and the state faithfully and sincerely, "in order to extirpate the horribly rebellious spirit which covers Russia with shame."

On May 16, 1881, the Emperor accepted General Loris Melikoff's resignation, and appointed General Ignatieff to succeed him as Minister of the Interior. Two days later, May 18, 1881, General Ignatieff issued a circular to the governors of the provinces, explaining the principles of the imperial manifesto, and assuring the peasantry that the government will maintain their rights and relieve the people as much as possible from the burden of taxation in order to improve their material condition.

The Revolutionary Committee answered the Czar's manifesto, dwelling on the wretchedness of the peasants, the banishments to Siberia, the gagging of free speech and public journals, and declaring that false counselors were in possession of the Czar's ear. The document concluded as follows: "Let Your Majesty assemble your people around you and listen to their wishes in an unprejudicial spirit, and then neither Your Majesty nor the state will have any reason to apprehend serious consequences."

On Easter day revolutionary proclamations from the *Land and Liberty* party were found inclosed in Easter eggs distributed in the streets of Moscow, urging the peasants to seize lands and to refuse to pay taxes or serve in the army. The Czar Alexander III. and his favorite counselors were disposed to adopt the most rigorous repressive measures, having no example in Russian history. Russia was in a revolutionary condition. From the White Sea to the Black Sea, from the Baltic to the Amoor, the peasants were waking from the dream of centu-

ries, with a dangerous knowledge of their rights and wrongs, eager to listen to the counsels of revolutionary propagandists. It was evident that the reforms which the Nihilists endeavored to wring from the government by deeds of bloodshed must not long be delayed. Meanwhile the Emperor lived in retirement, as a virtual prisoner at his palace of Gatschina, surrounded by six cordons of police; while his implacable enemies were dangerously busy. Numerous Nihilist warnings were sent to the Czar, while the St. Petersburg police were actively searching for dynamite mines. The social and political atmosphere of St. Petersburg was growing thicker and thicker, and was fraught with omens of an approaching storm. St. Petersburg was like a gloomy prison-house, where little was heard of the outside world, and everybody lived in a constant state of painful suspense. The chief journals still appeared with mourning borders. Over twelve thousand convicts were banished to Siberia in May, 1881.

The Czar's palace at Gatschina was filled with police and soldiers. Every one having business at the palace was subjected to a rigorous search whenever they had occasion to go there. In consequence of the reign of terror throughout Russia, the coronation of Alexander III. was postponed. Mistrust pervaded all classes, even the army; and many officers were arrested, including a colonel of the Imperial Guard. Great and increasing uneasiness prevailed in official circles. Many naval officers were arrested for being concerned in a secret plot to assassinate the Czar. Officers and civilians were arrested, of whose loyalty hitherto no suspicion had been entertained.

Early in June, 1881, a dynamite mine was discovered under the metals close to the Gatschina railway station, connected with a battery in the railway telegraph office; and all the telegraph officials were arrested. On June 19, 1881, two rubber bags filled with one hundred and fifty pounds of dynamite were discovered under a bridge over the Catharine Canal; the bags measuring twenty-one inches in diameter and being provided

with fuses. Late in July, 1881, a plot to assassinate the Czar was discovered and frustrated by the police; sixty persons, some of high rank, being concerned in the plot. The Czar Alexander III. and his family visited Moscow, July 30, 1881, and were enthusiastically cheered by the inhabitants, to whom the Czar made a short address, cordially thanking the people of Moscow for their hearty reception.

Early in October, 1881, twenty pupils of the Constantine Military School were arrested in St. Petersburg. Many Nihilist proclamations were found on them. The Russian authorities, in consequence, adopted the severest measures. Markets and fairs were prohibited whenever there was the least suspicion that the Nihilists intended to use such gatherings for their own purposes. Late in November, 1881, the St. Petersburg police were ordered to search suspicious places, in consequence of the discovery of seditious proclamations in the military schools of St. Petersburg. On November 26, 1881, a youth, obtaining admission to the Ministry of the Interior, fired off a revolver at General Tcherevine; but the ball missed its aim. The general secured and disarmed the youth, who was afterward tried, condemned and hanged.

Late in November, 1881, another unsuccessful attempt was made to assassinate the Czar Alexander III. A balloon was to ascend near Gatschina, carrying a quantity of dynamite and explosive fire-balls, together with appliances to cause the balloon to fall within the palace yard, when it would explode and set the palace on fire. In the confusion it was intended to seize the Czar and his family. In consequence of the plot, he decided to remove at once from Gatschina. The Russian police made many arrests in St. Petersburg, Charkoff and Tchernigov. Among the prisoners were a Chief of Police of an important Russian city, two daughters of high state officials, two Jewish merchants, and a number of students and active Nihilists. Another mine assassination plot was discovered at the Russian imperial palace at Gatschina, December 19,

1881; and several officers and two hundred other persons were arrested in consequence. A few days later a plot was discovered for the Czar's assassination in Karavanian street, on his way to the Michael Riding School, during the fête of St. George. The conspirators were all arrested at a Nihilist meeting in the suburbs of St. Petersburg. The naval port of Cronstadt was burned by Nihilists late in December, 1881. Numerous arrests were made in St. Petersburg at the beginning of January, 1882. The police seized a secret printing press. As the Nihilists were assembling in St. Petersburg and reviving the circulation of their proclamations, it was thought that they were preparing for fresh violence. A Holy League, formed to counteract Nihilism, was officially recognized as a branch of the Russian police.

The great trial of twenty-one Nihilists, charged with robbery, assassination and attempted assassination, began February 14, 1882. All the prisoners pleaded guilty, after a trial of nine days. Ten were sentenced to death. The remaining eleven were sentenced to various terms of penal servitude. On March 3, 1882, the Czar commuted the death sentences of all but one of the condemned Nihilists to hard labor in the mines for an indefinite period. The one excepted was Lieutenant Nicholas Sukhanoff, of the Russian navy, who was shot dead at Cronstadt by order of the Czar, March 31, 1882.

Numerous arrests of Nihilists were made at Odessa early in March, 1882; and a secret printing press, with copies of a Nihilist proclamation, were seized by the police. The Russian customs-officers discovered hats containing dynamite in cases remaining unclaimed. The Czar Alexander III. visited the tomb of his father, Alexander II., on March 13, 1882, the anniversary of the latter's assassination. The Nihilist organ, *The Will of the People*, urged the Nihilists to continue their plots, notwithstanding the reprisals of the government. The Chief of the Nihilist Executive Committee was arrested in St. Petersburg for complicity in the Little Garden street mine.

General Strelnikoff, Public Prosecutor of

the Kiev Military Tribunal, was shot and instantly killed at Odessa, March 31, 1882. Two assassins were stopped while fleeing from the scene in a carriage. They violently resisted arrest, and with their revolvers and poniards wounded three persons, but were finally overpowered and taken to a police station. A third assassin escaped. The prisoners were tried and condemned to death by a military court, April 1, 1882. A large concourse of people attended the funeral of General Strelnikoff, who was buried with full military honors.

In order to appease the Russian people, the Czar decided to grant reforms. Two commissions were to be appointed to consider questions of central institutions, and the share in the administration to be given to the people. A commission was already examining local institutions. General Loris Melikoff was the supreme head of the three commissions. The Czar postponed his coronation, in consequence of Nihilist plots for his assassination in Moscow on that occasion. General Ignatieff was succeeded as Minister of the Interior by Count Tolstoi, June 12, 1882.

Fresh arrests were made at St. Petersburg early in July, 1882, among whom were two Uhlan officers whose duty was to specially protect the Czar. These officers were distributing revolutionary proclamations. Count Tolstoi was threatened, and was constantly guarded. Additional precautions were taken at the Peterhoff palace. An imprisoned Nihilist disclosed a long list of newly-planned plots against the Emperor. In consequence of this revelation, the prisoners were better treated. At the close of army maneuvers at Ishora, a bridge constructed by the military across a ravine fell directly after the Emperor and Empress had passed over it, September 4, 1882.

The Emperor Alexander III. and his Empress were crowned at Moscow with the most imposing ceremonies, May 31, 1883. The Nihilists continued their outrages; and thousands of them were arrested and exiled to Siberia during 1883, in consequence of their numerous assassinations and dyna-

mite plots. In January, 1884, the Czar Alexander III. was shot at and slightly wounded. The Nihilists have continued their plots and assassinations ever since, and repeated attempts have been made on the Emperor's life; so that Nihilism has come to be chronic. Nihilists are continually arrested, tried, and put to death or exiled to Siberia; but their operations become more wide-spread with the progress of time, and the Czardom is unable to suppress it or even to check its destructive course.

ENGLAND'S RECENT WARS AND REFORMS.

As we have seen, Lord Beaconsfield had greatly raised British prestige by his triumph in the Congress of Berlin and by his astute diplomacy during the crisis in the Eastern question.

The conduct of Shere Ali, the Ameer of Afghanistan, in receiving a Russian embassy, in September, 1878, and his refusal to receive a British embassy, involved him in a war with England; and after his refusal to answer England's ultimatum, in November, 1878, three Anglo-Indian armies, numbering together thirty-four thousand men, with one hundred and fifty cannon, invaded Afghanistan. The army under General Browne consisted of sixteen thousand men, with sixty-six cannon. The army under General Roberts numbered six thousand men, and had twenty-four pieces of cannon. The army under General Biddulph was twelve thousand strong, and had sixty cannon. The Russian General Kaufmann's memorandum concerning the menace to Russian dominion in Turkestan from the Anglo-Indian invasion of Afghanistan led to a diplomatic campaign between England and Russia, and the Russian government asked guarantees from Great Britain. The British army under General Browne forced the Afghans to evacuate Fort Ali Musjid, in the Khyber Pass, after a fierce bombardment, November 22, 1878. General Browne was joined by many Afghan tribes, who tendered their submission. Dacca was evacuated by its Afghan garrison and occupied by General Browne's troops, while General

Appleyard dispersed an Afghan force in the Khyber Pass, November 30, 1878. General Roberts took Peiwar Khotal by storm, December 2, 1878; Major Anderson being killed on the British side. Jelalabad having been evacuated by its Afghan garrison was occupied by General Browne, December 20, 1878. The Afghan Ameer Shere Ali fled to Balkh, the ancient Bactria, in Turkestan, with the retiring Russian embassy. General Roberts defeated the Afghans in the Khyber Pass, January 7, 1879; and Generals Stewart and Biddulph marched through Candahar, January 8, 1879. In March, 1879, the Afghans were repulsed in attacks upon Generals Stewart's and Biddulph's rear-guards. Shere Ali, the fleeing Ameer of Afghanistan, finally entered Russian territory in January, 1879; and his followers were disarmed by the Russian authorities. Shere Ali died February 21, 1879, and was succeeded by his son Yakooob Khan, who made peace with the British, ceding to them the Khyber and Kojuk Passes, and allowing a British resident at Candahar.

In the summer of 1877 the British dominion in Southern Africa had been enlarged by the annexation of the Transvaal Republic, which had been founded by Dutch settlers from the Cape Colony. The President of the Transvaal Republic had offended the Zulus, a warlike tribe of negroes; and the Dutch settlers, or Boers, had been defeated. The Zulus threatened to invade the Transvaal, expel the Dutch, and attack the British colonies in Natal. In order to avoid a general war in Southern Africa, the British government proposed a confederate union with the Transvaal. The Boers accepted the terms; the British flag was hoisted at Pretoria, the Transvaal capital; and Sir Theophilus Shepstone, the British governor of the Cape Colony, proclaimed the annexation of the Transvaal to the British dominions. But this did not relieve the British in Southern Africa from the threatened attack by the Zulus.

In July, 1878, Lord Chelmsford found the situation so alarming that he asked for reinforcements from England. These were

sent; and in December, 1878, Lord Chelmsford had ten thousand British troops and native auxiliaries. Cetywayo, the Zulu king, had assembled forty thousand men to oppose the British. Cetywayo indignantly rejected the British ultimatum for the disarmament and disbandment of the Zulu army and the stationing of a British resident in Zululand. The British then invaded Zululand. A small British force was cut to pieces by twenty thousand Zulus under Cetywayo at Isandula, January 29, 1879. This disaster produced consternation in the Cape Colony and excitement in England; and Sir Bartle Frere, the British governor of Natal, sent appeals to England and the Mauritius for reinforcements. Seven thousand troops were sent to South Africa from England to Lord Chelmsford's aid, and troops were also ordered from British India and St. Helena. The British House of Commons voted a supplementary credit of one and a half million pounds sterling for the Zulu war, February 27, 1879. In January, February and March, 1879, the Zulus were repulsed in their attacks on Colonel Wood and Colonel Pearson. Colonel Pearson with twelve hundred men was besieged by thirty-five thousand Zulus at Ekowe; but Lord Chelmsford defeated Cetywayo at Gingelova and relieved Colonel Pearson at Ekowe the next day, April 4, 1879. Cetywayo's overtures for peace were rejected by Lord Chelmsford, who demanded the disbandment of the Zulu army and the stationing of a British resident in Zululand. On June 2, 1879, Prince Louis Napoleon, son of Napoleon III., was surprised and killed by a body of Zulus while reconnoitering with a party of British officers. Sir Garnet Wolseley succeeded Lord Chelmsford as British commander-in-chief in South Africa. Lord Chelmsford with five thousand men defeated and dispersed Cetywayo's army of twenty thousand men at Ulundi, July 4, 1879; and Cetywayo became a fugitive. The House of Commons voted a credit of three million pounds for the Zulu war. Sir Garnet Wolseley proclaimed Cetywayo's dethronement; and Cetywayo was finally cap-

tured by British cavalry, August 28, 1879. All the other Zulu chiefs submitted, and the Zulu war ended.

On September 3, 1879, several Afghan regiments revolted at Cabul and were joined by the populace. After the Ameer's arsenal and stores had been plundered and destroyed, the British embassy was attacked by four thousand mutineers and set on fire. The mutineers stoned and then cannonaded the embassy, which fired several volleys in return. The British force defending the embassy, numbering but seventy-nine persons, fought with the most determined valor. After the buildings had been fired, the surviving members of the embassy sallied out and defended themselves desperately, but were all killed, including Major Cavagnari and Lieutenant Hamilton. Intense excitement prevailed in British India. The Ameer Yakoob Khan declared that he was utterly surprised by the outbreak, and endeavored to quell it. The mutineers called upon the Afghan tribes to rise in arms against the British. The British authorities in India took prompt measures to restore order in Afghanistan. General Roberts pushed on to Cabul, and the British forces in the Khyber Pass were strongly reinforced. Although Yakoob Khan protested his fidelity to the British cause, there were evidences of his treachery. The British camp at the Shutargardan Pass repulsed an Afghan attack, October 2, 1879. The British under General Roberts routed the Afghans near Cabul, October 6 and 12, 1879, and then entered Cabul, accompanied by the Ameer Yakoob Khan and his suite. The British occupied the Bala-Hissar and captured about one hundred and forty cannon. During October, 1879, the British repulsed many Afghan assaults at the Shutargardan Pass and at other places. Yakoob Khan abdicated October 29, 1879, and eighty Afghans were hanged for complicity in the massacre of the British embassy. The British obtained proofs of Yakoob Khan's treachery, and his connivance at the massacre of the British embassy. Generals Macpherson and Massey failed in their combined movements in De-

cember, 1879, during which there was daily fighting around Shirpur and Cabul, where General Roberts with seven thousand British Indian troops was surrounded by thirty thousand Afghans. Generals Bright and Gough marched to the relief of General Roberts and repulsed some Afghan attacks. On December 23, 1879, General Roberts defeated and dispersed the Afghans around Cabul with heavy loss, and the next day re-occupied the Bala-Hissar and Cabul. General Gough joined General Roberts after the Afghan defeat. The British supported Abdur Rahman Khan, the pretender to the Afghan throne; and one party in Afghanistan supported Moosa Khan, the son of the ex-Ameer Yakoob Khan, who was received into the fortress of Ghiznee. Moosa Khan was in the hands of Mohammed Jan, a military adventurer. Early in 1880 Afghanistan was torn by civil war.

A famine in Ireland in 1879 led to an agrarian agitation of huge dimensions; and a formidable political and social organization, known as the *Irish Land League*, rapidly arose in Ireland. The leaders of the Irish agitation were Charles Stewart Parnell, John Dillon and Michael Davitt, members of Parliament. Parnell and other agitators addressed large meetings of Irish peasants in different parts of the Emerald Isle, urging the peasants to demand land reform and to refuse the payment of exorbitant rents to landlords. The peasants accordingly refused the payment of rents and resisted evictions by landlords and land-agents, some of whom fell victims to the vengeance of the peasants. Michael Davitt, James Bryce Killen and James Daly were arrested and ordered to appear before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin; but the prosecutions were not pressed. Parnell and Dillon visited America in January, 1880, to solicit subscriptions for the Irish cause.

In March, 1880, Lord Beaconsfield dissolved Parliament, and ordered new elections to test the sentiment of the British nation on his foreign policy. The elections, which were held April 1, 1880, resulted in a decisive defeat for Lord Beaconsfield's Min-

istry, and returned an overwhelming Liberal majority in the House of Commons; whereupon Lord Beaconsfield's Conservative Ministry resigned, and a new Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone came into power. The newly elected Parliament assembled in May, 1880; and during the summer of that year the Gladstone Ministry introduced a Compensation for Disturbance Bill designed for the benefit of the Irish peasantry. The measure was passed by the House of Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords, thus increasing political and social discontent in Ireland.

In 1880 Lord Lytton was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by the Marquis of Ripon. A body of Afghans overpowered and massacred a British garrison near Candahar, April 16, 1880. General Stewart defeated the Afghans near Ghiznee, killing and wounding two-thirds of their force of three thousand men, April 19, 1880. The British recognized Abdur Rahman Khan as Ameer of Afghanistan. An Afghan army of twelve thousand men from Herat under Ayooob Khan annihilated a British force of twenty-five hundred men under General Burrows at Candahar, July 27, 1880, and besieged Candahar. General Roberts marched to the relief of the British force at Candahar, and General Brooke was killed in a sortie from that town about the middle of August, 1880. Ayooob Khan raised the siege of Candahar on the approach of General Roberts, who dispersed his army and captured twenty-seven cannon, September 1, 1880. Ayooob Khan became a fugitive. In accordance with Mr. Gladstone's policy, the British evacuated Candahar, and thus abandoned Afghanistan, early in 1881.

Mr. Gladstone reversed Lord Beaconsfield's policy on the Eastern question, and under his direction England headed a coalition of the European Powers in a policy of coercion against Turkey. Mr. Goschen, the new British ambassador at Constantinople, plainly informed the Sultan that England was resolved upon the execution of the promised reforms in Asiatic Turkey. At

England's solicitation, a supplementary conference of the Great Powers was held at Berlin, in June, 1880, to execute the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin. The conference discussed the questions of reforms and the Greek frontier, and British diplomacy was completely successful on the Greek frontier question. Turkey protested against the protocol signed by the European Powers. The Porte encouraged the Albanians to fight the Montenegrins, and war seemed imminent between Greece and Turkey on the frontier question. Early in August, 1880, the Albanians rejected the Porte's authority and defied the will of Europe. Under England's leadership, the European Powers proceeded to coerce the Porte. England and Russia led in this policy, and Anglo-Russian diplomacy maintained the European concert. A European fleet under the British Admiral Seymour prepared to enforce the decisions of the Supplementary Berlin Conference. About the middle of September, 1880, the Albanians seized the town and fortress of Dulcigno. The Sultan boldly defied the European Powers, and warned the Montenegrins to make no demonstration against Dulcigno. He refused to surrender Dulcigno to the Montenegrins unless the Great Powers abandoned their naval demonstration. This defiance excited the indignation of the Great Powers; and the English people warmly supported Mr. Gladstone in his policy of coercion, while the other Great Powers cordially supported England in her new policy toward Turkey. England prepared to advance on Dulcigno, and Admiral Seymour was ordered to seize Smyrna. This bold step on England's part brought Turkey to terms; and Dervish Pasha wrested Dulcigno from the Albanians, November 24, 1880, and the Porte surrendered the town to the Montenegrins.

In the summer of 1880 Charles Bradlaugh, who was an atheist and a republican, was refused his seat in the House of Commons, to which he had been chosen by the electors of Northampton, because he refused to take the oath of fidelity to the queen and to the

Christian religion. The electors of Northampton again chose him, but the House of Commons again rejected him in the summer of 1881. The electors of Northampton chose him a third time, but the House of Commons still refused him his seat.

We have alluded to the annexation of the Transvaal Republic, in South Africa, to the British dominion in 1877. In December, 1880, the Boers, or Dutch farmers of the Transvaal, rose in arms to recover their independence; and after the English General Colley had been defeated in three engagements, in the last of which he was killed, February 27, 1881, the British restored the independence of the Boers, under the suzerainty of Queen Victoria, in accordance with Mr. Gladstone's policy, which was a reversal of the policy of aggression inaugurated by Lord Beaconsfield.

By its reversal of the aggressive foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield, the new Liberal Ministry of Mr. Gladstone was enabled to devote its exclusive attention to questions of internal reform, which had ceased when Mr. Gladstone had gone out of power in 1874.

There were riots and disturbances in Ireland during the year 1880, and general lawlessness prevailed throughout the island. British troops, to the number of thirty thousand, were sent into Ireland, in the fall of 1880, to aid the police in maintaining order, and to suppress any attempt at rebellion; and Mr. Parnell and the other Irish leaders were prosecuted by the British government, but the prosecutions failed, as the accused were acquitted by a jury before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin, January 25, 1881. William E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland in Gladstone's Ministry, introduced Coercion Bills for the suppression of lawlessness and outrages in Ireland; and these measures were passed by Parliament early in March, 1881, after weeks of discussion, during which the Irish Home Rule members of Parliament were several times suspended for obstructing the proceedings of Parliament. Under these Coercion Acts, Michael Davitt, John Dillon and other Irish agitators were arrested and imprisoned.

The Tory, or Conservative, party lost their greatest leader in the death of Lord Beaconsfield, April 19, 1881. On April 7, 1881, Mr. Gladstone introduced a new Irish Land Bill providing for free sales, fair rents and fixity of tenure. This bill provided for compensation by landlords to tenants in Ireland for improvements, and prohibited the eviction of tenants for fifteen years, except for breach of contract. The object of the bill was the establishment of a peasant proprietary for Ireland. On introducing the bill, Mr. Gladstone made a great speech in favor of the measure in the name of justice to the Irish people, and was loudly cheered after the close of his two hours' speech.

After a series of spirited debates, the *Irish Land Act* passed both Houses of Parliament, and received the royal assent August 22, 1881. As the Land League agitation continued after the passage of the Land Act, the Gladstone Ministry imprisoned Mr. Parnell and the other agitators, October, 1881, and the Irish Land League was declared illegal and was completely suppressed. Early in May, 1882, Messrs. Parnell and Davitt were liberated, and Mr. Gladstone undertook to abandon the Coercion Act and to adopt a conciliatory policy toward Ireland. To carry out this policy, the Right Hon. William E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Earl Cowper, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, resigned. No sooner had Earl Spencer, the new Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord Frederick Cavendish, the new Chief Secretary for Ireland, entered upon their duties in Dublin Castle than Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke were assassinated in cold blood in Phoenix Park, Dublin, while the park was crowded with an assemblage to rejoice over the release of the Irish suspects, May 6, 1882. The murder of the amiable Lord Frederick Cavendish, who had been sent as a peace-offering to Ireland, excited horror throughout England, Ireland and the civilized world; and Parliament passed a new repression bill. Parliament also passed an act for the relief of tenants in arrears of rent. Shocking agrarian murders were still com-

mitted in Ireland; but the assassins were arrested, tried, convicted and executed. The assassins of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke were at last discovered, and were tried, convicted and executed in the spring of 1883.

In the meantime ex-King Cetywayo of Zululand had sojourned in England, and visited Queen Victoria at Osborne, August 14, 1882. Civil war had in the meantime broken out in Zululand in 1882. Mr. Gladstone's Ministry reversed Lord Beaconsfield's action by restoring Cetywayo to his throne. He returned to Zululand in September, 1882, being heartily cheered as he left London.

The subserviency of the Khedive of Egypt and his suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey, to the influence of England and France in Egypt aroused the jealousy of the Egyptian National party, whose cry was "Egypt for the Egyptians." In April, 1879, the Egyptian army forced the Khedive Ismail Pasha to abdicate, and Tewfik Pasha became Khedive of Egypt. England had purchased two-thirds of the Suez Canal stock in 1875, thus securing a controlling interest in that great highway to the East. In 1879 England and France established a joint control over the finances of Egypt. The heavy interest paid to English and French bondholders retarded the material prosperity of Egypt, and increased the jealousy of the Egyptian National party against foreign influence. In September, 1881, a military riot forced the Khedive to change his Ministry. In the spring of 1882 Arabi Pasha, the Egyptian Minister of War, arrayed the Egyptian army against the Khedive and foreign influence in Egypt. The Khedive became utterly powerless, and Arabi Pasha became virtual master of Egypt. The Europeans were mobbed in Alexandria, and about three hundred were massacred, June 11, 1882. The hostile attitude of Arabi Pasha caused England to intervene to restore the Khedive's authority, and to protect the Suez Canal—her highway to India. Arabi Pasha strengthened the fortifications of Alexandria, and his refusal to desist caused the bombardment and destruc-

tion of the forts at Alexandria by the British fleet under Admiral Seymour, July 11, 1882. The next day Arabi Pasha evacuated Alexandria under protection of a flag of truce; whereupon the Bedouins and liberated convicts plundered the city, laid one-third of the city in ashes, and massacred two thousand Christians and Europeans, July 13, 1882. Great Britain then sent land troops to Egypt from England and India. The British seized the Suez Canal late in August, 1882, and the British fleet conveyed the land troops up the Canal to the head of the Red Sea. After defeating the Egyptian rebels at Rameses and Kassassin, the British under Sir Garnet Wolseley dispersed Arabi Pasha's army at Tel-el-kebir, took Arabi Pasha prisoner, and entered Cairo in triumph, September 13, 1882. The Khedive's authority was thus fully restored by British bayonets, and British influence became paramount in Egypt. Arabi Pasha and the other Egyptian rebel leaders were court-martialed and exiled early in December, 1882. Arabi Pasha was assigned a residence in the island of Ceylon by the British.

Mohammed Achmet, the new Messiah of Islam—better known as El Mahdi, or the False Prophet—led the Mohammedan tribes of the Soudan against the Egyptians in 1881; and in 1882 he gained repeated victories over the Egyptian forces. El Mahdi disputed the title of Khalif with the Sultan of Turkey, and his followers were inspired with unbounded religious enthusiasm. At El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan, in November, 1883, El Mahdi, at the head of three hundred thousand followers, cut to pieces an Egyptian army of ten thousand men under Hicks Pasha, an Englishman in the Egyptian service; thus creating the greatest alarm and terror in Cairo, and causing the rebellion to spread with lightning-like rapidity throughout the Egyptian Soudan. Another Egyptian force was utterly slaughtered in a sortie from Suakim, December 5, 1883. An Egyptian force under Baker Pasha, also an Englishman in the Egyptian service, was annihilated by the False Prophet's followers, February 4, 1884. The



ARAB OUTPOST.

Egyptian rebels—Arab allies of the False Prophet—under Osman Digma, captured Sinkat, February 11, 1884, and massacred the garrison with the women and children, and compelled the garrison of Tokar to surrender, February 21, 1884. England interfered in favor of the Khedive of Egypt, and a small English force under General Graham was sent against the Arab rebels of Nubia and the Soudan. General Graham's force defeated Osman Digma's rebel force with heavy loss at Teb, February 29, 1884, and at Tamanieb, March 13th, and burned Tamanieb and dispersed the rebels, March 27th. In the meantime Gordon Pasha, an Englishman long in the Egyptian service, was defeated by El Mahdi's forces near Khartoum, March 16, 1884, and was in a perilous position at Khartoum. The Arab rebels massacred the garrison of Shendy, with two thousand of its inhabitants—men, women and children, April 15, 1884; and captured Berber and massacred its inhabitants, May 26th.

During the spring and summer of 1884 General Gordon was closely besieged at Khartoum. He made constant sorties, and captured Berber, Shendy and Metemneh, in October, 1884. Colonel Stewart with forty men was massacred by treacherous Arabs on his way to Dongola, and the French consul at Khartoum was assassinated in September, 1884. In the meantime a British expedition under Lord Wolseley was sent to rescue General Gordon at Khartoum; and General Stewart defeated the Arab rebels at Abu Klea Wells, January 17, 1885, where the gallant Colonel Burnaby was killed. General Stewart extricated himself from his perilous position by a victory near Metemneh, January 19, 1885, but was himself severely wounded. Finally El Mahdi took Khartoum through the treachery of some of Gordon's Pashas, January 26, 1885; and General Gordon was killed, and the garrison and the women and children were massacred. General Stewart died of wounds received at Korti, February 18, 1885. Meanwhile General Earle took Birti by storm, but was mortally wounded in the

engagement, February 10, 1885. Thus the British relief expedition was a total failure; and General Lord Wolseley, in full retreat, was forced to act on the defensive. General Graham defeated Osman Digma in another fight at Suakim, March 20, 1885. The British garrison at Massowah repulsed an Arab attack, April 14, 1885, and Osman Digma retreated. General Graham occupied and burned Tamanieb in May, 1885. El Mahdi died late in 1885, but the war still continued.

In England, Irish conspirators used dynamite with terrible effect, blowing up the local government building in London, March 15, 1883; but some of the Irish dynamite manufacturers were detected, arrested, tried, convicted and imprisoned for life. Another explosion occurred in the Victoria Railway Station in London, late in February, 1884. A frightful explosion occurred in Scotland Yard, London, May 30, 1884. A terrible explosion occurred under London Bridge, December 13, 1884. The most frightful of all these dynamite explosions were those under the Houses of Parliament and the Tower, January 24, 1885; that under the Parliament buildings doing fearful damage and arousing intense indignation in England.

In July, 1884, Parliament discussed Mr. Gladstone's new Franchise Bill. The Lords opposed the bill; and on July 21st there was a monster demonstration in London in favor of the measure, one hundred thousand workmen composing the procession to protest against the rejection of popular suffrage. The London *Standard's* premature publication of the bill for a redistribution of Parliamentary seats, October 9, 1884, caused a political sensation, but prepared the way for a compromise on the Franchise Bill. Finally, in November, 1884, the Franchise Bill was passed by both Houses of Parliament; and upon receiving the royal assent, December 6, 1884, that great measure—the *Third Reform Bill*—became a law, thus enfranchising all but paupers, lunatics and criminals, and making the suffrage well-nigh universal throughout the United Kingdom.



ATTACK ON KHARTOUM.

In 1884 the Marquis of Ripon was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Lord Dufferin. In the spring of 1885 a serious dispute between England and Russia threatened to end in war. Russia had already conquered all the Tartar Khanates of Turkestan, and was now threatening Afghanistan, an ally of Great Britain. The boundary between Afghanistan and Russian Turkestan was in dispute; and the Russian General Komaroff invaded Afghan territory, and attacked and defeated the Afghans at Penjdeh, March 30, 1885. This unprovoked aggression aroused great excitement and indignation in England, and both England and Russia were making extensive military preparations. A magnificent meeting between the Ameer of Afghanistan and Lord Dufferin, Viceroy of British India, occurred at Rawul Pindi. Parliament granted Mr. Gladstone a credit of eleven million pounds sterling, after he had made a masterly speech; but the dispute was peacefully settled.

The Ministry being defeated on the budget June 8, 1885, Mr. Gladstone resigned; and a Tory Ministry under the Marquis of Salisbury came into power, June 22, 1885. The new Conservative Ministry dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections. These elections were held late in November, 1885, and resulted in a plurality of Liberals; while the Irish Home Rulers, who had united with the Tories to drive Gladstone from power, and who aided the Tories in the elections, held the balance of power between the Liberals and Conservatives, so that Mr. Parnell, "Ireland's uncrowned king," was virtual master of the political situation in Great Britain and Ireland.

A dispute having arisen with King Thebaw of Burmah, an Anglo-Indian army under General Prendergast invaded and conquered Burmah in November, 1885, and occupied Mandalay, the Burmese capital. King Thebaw was deposed by the British; and on January 1, 1886, Burmah was declared annexed to the British Indian Empire. This British conquest had been easily accomplished; but the Dacoits, or Burmese

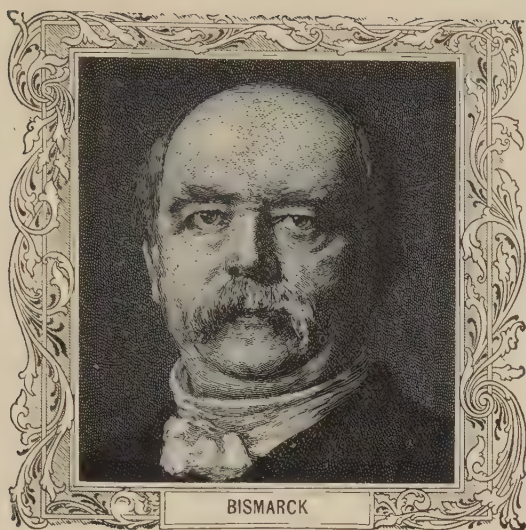
robbers, greatly annoyed the conquerors for several years.

The new Parliament convened January 21, 1886. Five days later the Ministry was defeated by the adoption of an amendment to the queen's speech relating to allotments of land; whereupon Lord Salisbury resigned, and a Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone again came into power, February 1, 1886. In this Parliament, Charles Bradlaugh took his seat for the borough of Northampton, having been chosen by that constituency for the fourth time.

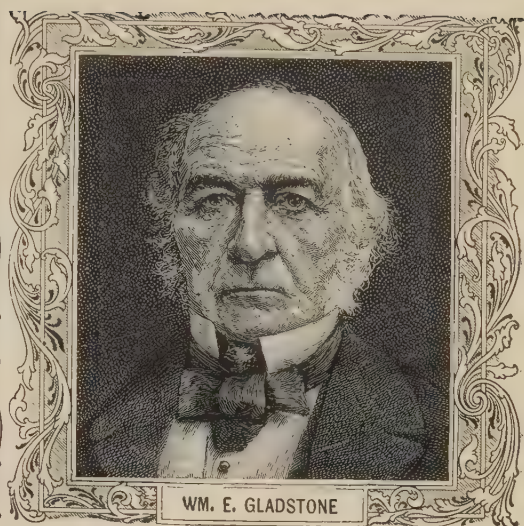
At the beginning of April, 1886, Mr. Gladstone introduced a Home Rule Bill for Ireland providing for the restoration of the Irish Parliament on College Green, in Dublin. The speech in which Mr. Gladstone introduced this measure was one of the greatest that he had ever made, and drew forth an immense concourse of people. After two months of discussion, this Home Rule Bill was rejected by Parliament, early in June, 1886; whereupon Mr. Gladstone dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections. A branch of the Liberal party under John Bright, Joseph Chamberlain and the Marquis of Hartington had voted with the Conservatives against the Home Rule Bill, and formed a coalition with the Conservatives, which defeated Mr. Gladstone and his followers in the elections, which were held early in July, 1886.

In consequence of the Conservative victory in the elections, Mr. Gladstone and his Ministry resigned July 20, 1886; and the Conservatives under Lord Salisbury again returned to power. In the new Conservative Ministry, Lord Randolph Churchill, the progressive young Tory leader, occupied the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader in the House of Commons. Parliament assembled August 5, 1886. For several weeks in August, 1886, there was almost daily rioting between the Catholics and the Orangemen in Belfast, Ireland; and soldiers fired into the crowd and killed many. These Belfast riots were frequently renewed during the next few months.

Mr. Parnell's Land Bill was rejected by



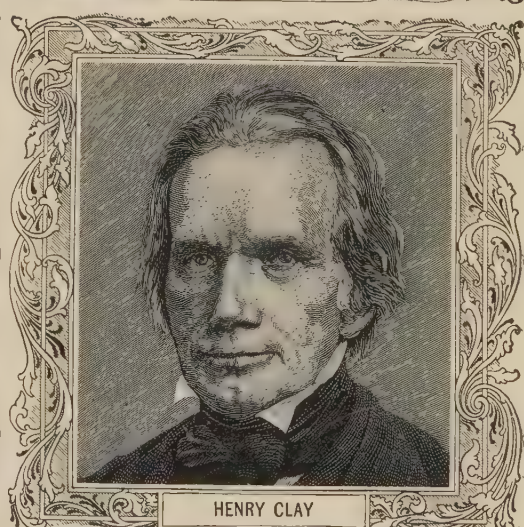
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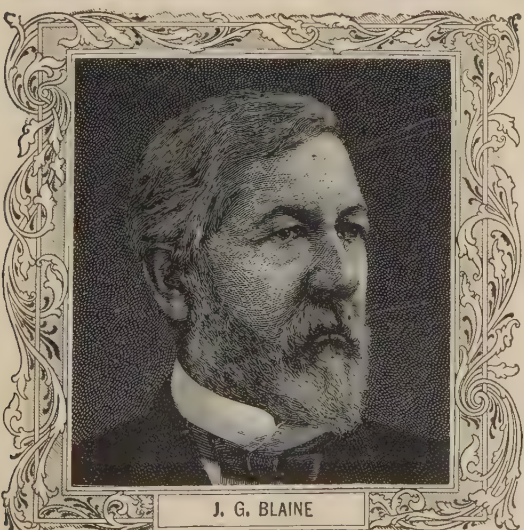
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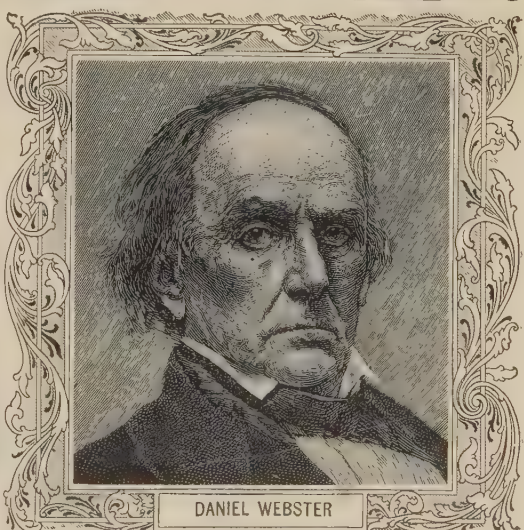
EDMUND BURKE



HENRY CLAY



J. G. BLAINE



DANIEL WEBSTER

THE GIANTS OF STATECRAFT.

Parliament, September 18, 1886. Parliament was prorogued September 22d until November 11th following. Lord Randolph Churchill resigned from the Ministry, December 23, 1886. The irrepressible conflict in Ireland reopened with renewed animosity. The Tory Ministers of Great Britain seemed bent on trying the oft-repeated policy of coercion to suppress political agitation in the discontented Emerald Isle. No Irish legislation except such as related to coercion and the bill enlarging the provisions of the Ashbourne Land Act were acted upon by Parliament. The Liberal Unionists, as the Liberal faction under the Marquis of Hartington were called, heartily supported the coercive measures of the Tory Ministry.

In December, 1886, John Dillon was prosecuted by the Ministry for agitation in favor of the "plan of campaign." He acted as his own counsel before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin. He justified the remarks for which he was prosecuted, and charged the crown with straining the law against him. The Judge declared the "plan of campaign" illegal, and allowed Mr. Dillon the option of furnishing a bond for future good behavior, or going to jail for six months. Mr. Dillon was advised by his friends to furnish bail, continue the anti-rent agitation, and force a jury trial by estreat of sureties.

The "plan of campaign" was a renewal in a modified form of Mr. Parnell's no-rent agitation of several years before. In consequence of another failure of their crops, Irish tenants were unable to pay the full amounts of rents imposed upon them; and the Irish leaders encouraged the peasants to pay just such rents as they were able to pay, and, if the landlords refused to accept such reduced rents, to pay them to the Irish leaders themselves, who acted as trustees for their tenants. The Ministry, backed by the Irish judiciary, held that the "plan of campaign" was entirely illegal, and that its object was to defraud the landlords out of their rents. Several Irish members of Parliament who took the reduced rents of estates were threatened with prosecution for embez-

zement if they did not turn the money thus collected into the public treasury. These phases of the Irish agitation and riots at Cork and other places in Ireland portended another season of disquietude for misgoverned Erin. Gladstone and Parnell disapproved of the "plan of campaign."

On March 21, 1887, Arthur James Balfour, the new Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet, introduced a stringent coercion bill for Ireland—the eighty-seventh in eighty-seven years. After several months of discussion, this bill was passed in July, 1887. The passage of this tyrannically repressive measure was followed by its practical application. The Irish National League was proclaimed an illegal organization, so that it was unlawful for that powerful political organization to hold meetings. The cruel evictions of non-rent-paying tenants and the firing of the police and the military into crowds led to violence and bloodshed in Ireland. The Mitchelstown affray, in the fall of 1887, on which occasion the police and the military fired into the assembled multitude, highly exasperated the Irish people.

The new Land Act which the Ministry introduced and carried through Parliament was shorn of some of its most salutary provisions in the shape of amendments by the House of Lords, so that it was rendered practically valueless as a remedial measure, and did very little to ameliorate the condition of the peasant tenantry of Ireland. Parliament was prorogued by Queen Victoria in September, 1887.

On Tuesday, June 20, 1887—the fiftieth anniversary of the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland—London was ablaze with enthusiasm over a great jubilee demonstration in honor of the event. Over a million people witnessed this great demonstration—this greatest state pageant in English history. Whatever boundless wealth, military pomp and illustrious rank could do to create and heighten the effect of the British nation's exhibition of loyalty, to demonstrate the affection of the English people for their il-

lustrious sovereign, was done for the great demonstration to celebrate the end of the first fifty years of Her Majesty's reign. The enthusiastic exhibitions of loyalty of the English masses, and the numerous costly presents which she received, testified to the British nation's loyalty to a queen whose reign has been the most prosperous, as well as one of the longest, in the history of the British nation.

During the fall of 1887 there were thousands of evictions in Ireland for non-payment of rent. There were numerous evictions at Bodyke, where the evicted tenants resisted the police and fought desperately for their homes. William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, one of the leading journals of Dublin, was arrested under the coercion act on a charge of sedition, and was incarcerated in Tullamore jail. The evicted peasants and others took terrible vengeance on the officers of the law. The Moonlighters waylaid and murdered police and land-agents in different parts of Ireland, and a reign of terror prevailed in that unhappy country. Mr. Mandeville and Lord Mayor Sullivan of Dublin were also arrested, tried, convicted, and sent to Tullamore jail for two months. Timothy Harrington was also arrested and sent to jail. These arrests of Irish leaders and members of Parliament were made for the purpose of crippling the Irish National League. Mr. O'Brien was arrested at Manchester, in England, in January, 1889, and was taken to Ireland, tried and convicted, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in Clonmel jail. Timothy Harrington was arrested and imprisoned about the same time.

The Irish agitation still continued to disturb British politics. The most important event in connection with this agitation was the action of Parliament in appointing a commission to investigate the charges which the *London Times* made against Mr. Parnell in the summer of 1887 in a series of articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," by which that great journal sought to connect the Irish leader with the deeds of lawless men and assassins, even going so far as to pub-

lish letters purporting to have been written by Mr. Parnell, openly sympathizing with the assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke, in May, 1882. Mr. Parnell at once pronounced the letters forgeries. After an investigation of many months, an irresponsible wretch named Richard Piggott, when driven to the wall by a rigid cross-examination by Mr. Parnell's counsel, confessed that the letters were forgeries, thus producing a profound sensation in the court-room and throughout the country, February 26, 1889. Piggott at once fled to Madrid, in Spain, where he blew out his brains as he was about to be arrested by order of the British government, March 1, 1889.

This inglorious result of the investigation dumbfounded the Ministry and the Tories, and the investigation developed nothing of consequence thereafter. Mr. Parnell's vindication had been complete; and the attempt of the greatest newspaper of the world to fasten a disgraceful crime upon the Home Rule leader failed most ignominiously, placing the *London Times* in a most humiliating dilemma.

FRANCE'S RECENT AFFAIRS.

The French Republic was secure from Monarchical attacks after the election of Jules Grévy to the Presidency, in January, 1879; and the Republicans became divided on questions of public policy. At the close of December, 1879, the Ministry of M. Waddington was obliged to resign; whereupon a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet undertook the control of public affairs in France.

On June 21, 1880, after a spirited debate, and through the exertions of M. Gambetta, the French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of three hundred and thirty-three to one hundred and forty, passed a bill granting amnesty to the Communists of 1871. This bill was rejected by the French Senate on July 3, 1880; but at the same time the Senate adopted a measure granting amnesty to all the participants in the Communist revolt of 1871, except incendiaries and assassins, by a vote of one hundred and forty-three to one hundred and thirty-eight. On July 10,

1880, the Chamber of Deputies adopted the amnesty bill as passed by the Senate.

Toward the close of June, 1880, the French government undertook to enforce the decrees closing all religious houses. The enforcement of these decrees caused slight disorder in Paris, and very little excitement in the provinces, the Jesuits quitting their establishments under protest. At several places, however, the police and the military had to effect forcible entrances; and several Jesuit establishments took legal proceedings against the Police Commissioner for violating a domicile and infringing personal liberty. A number of magistrates resigned rather than enforce the anti-Jesuit decrees. An animated debate occurred in the Chamber of Deputies on July 2, 1880, concerning the Jesuit expulsions; and the Ministry was bitterly assailed. By the close of August, 1880, the three large Jesuit schools in Paris were entirely abandoned. A number of French bishops protested against the enforcement of the decrees against the Jesuits, and undertook to defend the religious houses; and Pope Leo XIII. approved their course, and protested against the action of the French Ministry; but the French Cabinet resolved to adhere to its policy.

On July 14, 1880, a grand national fête in honor of the destruction of the Bastille was held in Paris. Thousands of people from the provinces flocked to the capital to witness the magnificent pageant, and the greatest Republican enthusiasm was manifested. The elections in France on August 2, 1880, resulted in large Republican gains.

The application of the religious decrees caused a Ministerial crisis in France on September 19, 1880, resulting in the resignation of M. de Freycinet's Cabinet and the accession of a new Ministry under the Premiership of M. Jules Ferry. In November, 1880, another Cabinet crisis was threatened; but both Chambers of the Assembly passed votes of confidence in the Ministry, and M. Jules Ferry's Cabinet remained in power.

Early in April, 1881, a French military expedition invaded Tunis, with the ostensible purpose of chastising the Kroumirs, a

marauding Arab tribe that had made plundering and murderous raids into Algeria; and the Bey of Tunis was forced to accept a treaty making Tunis a virtual dependency of France, May 12, 1881. The Bey informed the Porte that he signed the treaty under compulsion.

The Ottoman Porte protested to the European Powers against the French invasion of Tunis, and sent several notes to the French government relative to France's attack on the integrity of the Ottoman Empire; but France declined to recognize the Porte's suzerainty over the Bey of Tunis. France warned the Porte that the dispatch of any Turkish force to Tunis would be regarded as a cause for war. The French squadron in the Piræus left suddenly to cruise in Suda Bay to intercept any Turkish men-of-war bound for Tunis.

England and Italy were highly indignant at the French proceedings in Tunis; and the British and Italian press protested most vigorously against the Franco-Tunisian treaty, accusing France of perfidy and falsehood because she had assured England and Italy when the invasion began that the French merely wished to chastise the Kroumirs. The Paris press replied angrily to the English criticisms of the treaty. The treaty led to a change of Ministry in Italy.

Not a voice was raised against the treaty in the French Senate or Chamber of Deputies; and on May 23, 1881, the Chamber of Deputies ratified the treaty by a vote of four hundred and fifty-three to one. M. Roustan, the French Consul General at Tunis, issued a circular to the Great Powers about the middle of June, 1881, announcing that the Bey had intrusted him with the direction of the foreign relations of Tunis. This circular created great dissatisfaction in England and Italy.

On November 15, 1881, a new Ministry headed by M. Gambetta succeeded the Ministry of M. Jules Ferry. M. Brisson was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies. Gambetta defined his policy, which was to be a revision of the Constitution of France. In the Senatorial elections in

France early in January, 1882, the Republicans gained twenty-two seats. M. Gambetta ascended the tribune in the Chamber of Deputies, January 14, 1882, and read the bill for the revision of the Constitution. A committee of thirty-three was appointed in the Chamber of Deputies to examine the bill. Two-thirds of the committee opposed the measure. In a speech to the committee Gambetta made a threat which created a most profound sensation. The committee reported against the bill, and the Chamber of Deputies rejected the measure by a vote of three hundred and five to one hundred and seventeen, January 26, 1882. Gambetta and his Ministry at once resigned, and were succeeded by a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet. On August 7, 1882, M. de Freycinet's Ministry gave place to a new one headed by M. Duclerc. The French Republic sustained an irreparable loss in the death of Gambetta, December 31, 1882. The remains of this great statesman and patriot were honored with the most magnificent funeral pageant ever seen in Paris, three hundred thousand persons being in the procession. He died at forty-four.

During the fall of 1882 there were dangerous Anarchist riots at Lyons and Monceaux les Mines, and the French Republic was disturbed for several months by Anarchist and Communistic agitation. Louise Michel and Prince Krapotkine, a Russian Nihilist exile, were arrested, tried, convicted, sentenced and imprisoned, for their part in the disturbances. Louise Michel was arrested March 30, 1883, and tried, convicted, sentenced and imprisoned for six years, in June. A motion to grant amnesty to Louise Michel and the convicted Anarchists was rejected by the Senate, July 9th. On the national fête day, July 14, 1883, a statue of the Republic was unveiled in the Chateau de Eau, in Paris, in the presence of members of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies and a vast multitude of people.

There were frequent changes of Ministry in France, and another Ministry under Jules Ferry again came into power. In 1883 France became involved in a war with the

Queen of Madagascar, and a French fleet under Admiral Pierre bombarded and took Tamatave, June 19, 1883. In 1883 France also waged war against the Empire of Anam for the possession of Tonquin; and the French gained several victories, and made a successful sortie from Hanoi, July 19, 1883, and from Namdinh, August 7th, and bombarded Hue, the Anamese capital, August 18th.

The Treaty of Hue, August 25, 1883, did not end the war; as the war party in Anam was supported by China, whose Emperor claimed a suzerainty over Tonquin. The Chinese now took the field against the French, but were routed at Haiphong, December 9, 1883; and the French captured Sontay, December 16th, Bac-Ninh, March 14, 1884, and Hung-Hoa, April 15th. The refusal of China to pay the indemnity demanded by France led to the capture of Keelung, on the island of Formosa, by the French navy, August 5, 1884, and also to the bombardment of Foo-choo-foo, China, and the destruction of the Chinese fleet in that port by the French fleet under Admiral Courbet, August 23, 24 and 25, 1884.

Thereupon the Chinese Emperor declared war against France; and three Chinese armies, numbering together seventy-five thousand men, invaded Tonquin to expel the French from that province. The French reoccupied Keelung and seized the island of Formosa early in October, 1884. Six thousand Chinese were repulsed by the French at Kep, in Tonquin, the Chinese losing a thousand men. The French fleet under Admiral Lespes was repulsed by the Chinese at Tamsui, in the island of Formosa, October 12, 1884. In Tonquin the French defeated the Chinese at Tuyen-Kwang, October 13th of the same year.

The French occupied Langson, February 14, 1885, after its evacuation by the Chinese, who had been defeated by the French, February 11 and 12, 1885. The French fleet under Admiral Courbet captured the Keelung coal mines, in the island of Formosa, after a hard battle, January 25, 1885. Finally the French in Tonquin met with a crushing

defeat at Langson, General Negrier being severely wounded. This decisive defeat caused great excitement and indignation in Paris. The Chambers were surrounded by an angry mob; and M. Jules Ferry's Ministry was forced to resign by an adverse vote of three hundred and eight to one hundred and sixty-one in the Chamber of Deputies, whereupon a new Ministry under M. Henri Brisson came into power. Ferry was branded and hooted as a traitor and a liar; and members of his own party cried: "Down with the wretch!" "Turn him out!" A treaty of peace was concluded, by which France renounced her claim for indemnity from China, while China recognized the French protectorate over Tonquin and Anam, April 3, 1885. On July 6, 1885, the French in Anam were attacked by thirty thousand Anamites; and on October 26th General de Courcy defeated the Anamites, capturing their stronghold.

On May 24, 1885, the anniversary of the burial of the Communist dead, a Communist riot broke out in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, in Paris, in consequence of an attempt by the police to seize the red flags carried by the Communists; and a number of police and Anarchists were killed and wounded, but the police were finally triumphant. The Chamber of Deputies sustained the action of the police, and passed a vote of confidence in the Ministry by three hundred and eighty-eight to ten.

In the French elections of 1885 the Conservatives gained ninety-six seats in the Chamber of Deputies. In December of that year peace was made between France and Madagascar, after several French defeats by the Hovas.

On December 28, 1885, the two Chambers of the French Assembly in joint convention, or Congress, reëlected M. Jules Grévy President of the French Republic for a second term of seven years. M. Brisson's Ministry resigned, and a new Ministry under M. de Freycinet was formed January 7, 1886. In this Ministry, General Boulanger held the post of Minister of War. His policy was to increase and reorganize the

French army, so as to make it superior to the German army; and he represented the French sentiment of a desire for war with Germany. His course aroused the military ardor of France and alarmed the German government.

In June, 1886, both Chambers of the Assembly passed a bill for the expulsion of the French princes from the country. The Duke d'Aumale protested against his expulsion from the French army. Prince Victor Napoleon went to Belgium. Prince Jerome Napoleon went to Italy. Prince Napoleon, "Plon Plon," proceeded to Switzerland. Prince Louis Napoleon visited the United States. The Orleans princes—the Count de Paris, the Duke de Chartres and the Duke d'Aumale—retired to England. The Duke d'Aumale in his will bequeathed his great estates at Chantilly, with all their appurtenances, works of art, books and revenues, to the French people, on condition that the property must be preserved intact. This gift was valued at twenty-five million francs.

The Republicans carried eight hundred and forty-seven districts in the elections for Conseilles-Genereaux, or Councils-General, on August 1, 1886; and the Conservatives carried four hundred and eleven districts. Second ballots were required in one hundred and seventy-seven districts.

An adverse vote in the Chamber of Deputies led to the resignation of M. de Freycinet's third Ministry and the formation of a new ministry under M. Goblet, December 11, 1886. In consequence of a defeat in the Chamber of Deputies, M. Goblet's Cabinet resigned, whereupon M. Rouvier formed a new Ministry, May 27, 1887. The warlike proclivities of General Boulanger, who had become a great popular idol among the French people, alarmed the wisest statesmen of France, who desired the maintenance of peace. This peace party desired to suppress General Boulanger; and the warlike general was assigned to the command of the Thirteenth French Army Corps, in order to get him away from Paris during the anniversary of the capture of the Bastille, July 14th. The

Boulangists prepared for a demonstration on that day, and shouted "Vive Boulanger!" But the Ministry suppressed it, and the day passed off without any serious disturbance. General Boulanger's plan was to mobilize the French army in October, 1887; and M. Ferron, the Minister of War in M. Rouvier's Cabinet, emulated his warlike predecessor.

The relations of France and Germany were strained in consequence of several incidents on the frontier of Alsace. A French official had been enticed over the frontier by German officials and imprisoned for communicating with disaffected parties in Alsace-Lorraine, but was soon released by the German authorities. Several months later French sportsmen were fatally shot for intruding on German territory, but the German government paid an indemnity to the families of the victims. The Ministry decided upon the mobilization of the French army, and upon the dismissal of all Mayors who made demonstrations in favor of the Count de Paris during his visit to the Isle of Jersey. The Count von Münster, the German ambassador at Paris, protested against the hostile tone of the French Radical press toward Germany, especially one article characterizing the count himself as "the Grand Master of the order of spies," and describing the whole German embassy as a "nest of reptiles." Lord Lyons, the British ambassador, also protested against these violent attacks of the Radical journals of France. M. Flourens, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, expressed his regret for these hostile newspaper articles.

Through the influence, courage, prudence and conservatism of President Jules Grévy, the Boulanger war party was overthrown in 1887. President Grévy saw that France was being swept without sense or reason into a position in which war with Germany would have been inevitable. It required great courage, firmness and wisdom on the venerable President's part to overthrow the hero and idol Boulanger from his place of vantage in the War Office, without exciting any dangerous opposition to such a course on the part of the French people.

President Grévy had been very popular among his countrymen until the fall of 1887, and had always been recognized as one of the most upright statesmen that France ever had. He had always been regarded as honest, safe, conservative and patriotic. But in October, 1887, several scandals were brought to light. General Caffarel was found to have been engaged in the corrupt practice of selling army decorations; and General Boulanger, the former Minister of War and the great popular favorite, was found to be involved; as was also M. Daniel Wilson, President Grévy's son-in-law. These guilty parties were arrested, and the exposure of their corruption created a storm of indignation among the French people.

President Grévy was not involved; but, because his son-in-law was, he suddenly became so unpopular that his resignation was generally insisted upon. President Grévy for some time resisted the popular pressure; but he finally yielded to the popular desire and the desire of the National Assembly, December 2, 1887, and resigned the Presidency of the French Republic in the seventy-fifth year of his age. The next day, December 3, 1887, the two Chambers of the Assembly in joint convention, or Congress, elected M. Sadi-Carnot his successor. About six hundred votes were cast for the new President, who is a grandson of the famous M. Carnot, the War Minister during the great French Revolution.

M. Rouvier's Cabinet resigned December 12, 1887, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under M. Tirard; but the Tirard Ministry was overthrown by an adverse vote in the Chamber of Deputies, March 30, 1888, and a new Cabinet was organized under M. Floquet.

On January 26, 1889, General Boulanger was elected to the Chamber of Deputies from Paris by a majority of fifty thousand, and by a plurality of eighty thousand. Great excitement prevailed on the Boulevards during the night, and the Cabinet held a night session to discuss the situation. The Ministry of M. Floquet was succeeded several weeks later by a new Cabinet under

M. Tirard, February 21, 1889. It was feared that General Boulanger, encouraged by his popularity, might attempt a *coup d'état*. The general received a great ovation on his way to Tours on March 17, 1889, and he made a speech declaring himself in favor of a republic without an Assembly.

At the beginning of April, 1889, General Boulanger was prosecuted by the government on charges of conspiracy against the Republic. Thereupon he fled to Belgium, and issued a proclamation to the French people. There was great excitement in Paris. The Ministry decided to bring Boulanger to trial, and the Chamber of Deputies preferred charges of treason against him. The trial began before the Senate on April 12th.

The Royalists, Bonapartists and Boulangerists formed a coalition against the Republicans in the campaign of 1889; but the elections, on Sunday, September 22, 1889, gave the Republicans an overwhelming majority in the new Chamber of Deputies, thus inflicting a deadly blow at General Boulanger's prospects, and for the time at least effectually disposing of that demagogue. Two hundred and twenty-four Republicans and one hundred and fifty-nine Opposition members were elected. Second ballots were necessary in one hundred and seventy-seven electoral districts. The elections of General Boulanger in Montmartre and of Henri Rochefort in Belleville were annulled.

In the meantime, during the period of the Third French Republic, there had been two International Expositions at Paris—one in 1878, and the other in 1889.

SPAIN'S RECENT AFFAIRS.

Spain has been unusually quiet since the overthrow of the Spanish Republic and the accession of King Alfonso at the beginning of 1875. In 1877 Alfonso married Mercedes, a daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier, thus fulfilling a part of the scheme of Louis Philippe of France. But Mercedes died in the summer of 1878; and the following year Alfonso married Maria

Christina, the daughter of the Austrian Archduke Ferdinand. Several attempts upon the life of Alfonso were made by Socialists during the years 1878 and 1879; and in August, 1883, there was a military uprising in favor of a republic in Spain, but it was easily suppressed. Alfonso died on November 25, 1885, and the next day Marshal Serrano also died. Alfonso's widow, Maria Christina, became regent for their little son, who succeeded his father on the Spanish throne as ALFONSO XIII.

GERMANY'S RECENT AFFAIRS.

At the opening of the newly elected German Reichstag, November 17, 1881, Prince Bismarck read the speech from the throne. The Emperor's speech created much surprise. The Liberals were disappointed at his ignoring the Liberal majority. The German people were astounded at the government's arbitrary policy. On January 4, 1882, an imperial rescript, countersigned by Prince Bismarck, was addressed to the Prussian Ministry, declaring the Emperor's right to direct the government of Prussia. This imperial rescript was regarded as an attack upon the Prussian constitution, and was severely denounced by the Prussian press. The rescript created a profound sensation throughout Prussia. The Prussian people supported their representatives in the Prussian Landtag. The *Algemeine Zeitung* was seized for characterizing the imperial rescript as a *coup d'état*. In a debate in the German Reichstag on the budget, January 24, 1882, Prince Bismarck reiterated the doctrines of the imperial rescript, for which he was specially thanked by the Emperor William I. Bismarck's speech created a great uproar in the Reichstag.

In 1882 and 1883 Prince Bismarck endeavored to make the Anti-Socialist law more stringent, but there was considerable opposition to his tyrannical repressive measures.

The intimacy of France and Russia, and the reorganization and strengthening of the French army under the direction of General Boulanger, when Minister of War

in M. de Freycinet's third Cabinet in 1886, greatly alarmed Prince Bismarck and his fellow Ministers in Germany. The German Reichstag rejected Bismarck's bill for an increase of the German army on a peace footing by an additional force of forty-one thousand men for seven years, but was willing to vote that contingent for three years. The "man of blood and iron" was

were won from his opponents. When the new Reichstag convened, Bismarck easily carried out his policy, and the Reichstag readily voted the increase of the peace establishment of the German army by an addition of forty-one thousand men for seven years. The German Minister of War said that both France and Russia must be watched, and expressed greater fear of the



THE LATE EMPEROR FREDERICK OF GERMANY.

not to be thwarted in his designs; and he accordingly dissolved the Reichstag, January 14, 1887, and ordered new elections. These elections were held in February, 1887; and, although Bismarck's opponents made great efforts, the elections resulted in a victory for the "Iron Chancellor," who secured a majority in the new Reichstag. The old members who sustained Bismarck's policy were generally reelected, while many seats

French army than of the Russian because of France's superior system of mobilization.

The ninetieth birthday of the Emperor William I., March 22, 1887, was greeted in Berlin by the ringing of bells and general rejoicings. In the meantime his son and heir, the Crown Prince Frederick William, was slowly dying of an incurable disease of the throat. The best medical skill was unable to check the progress of the malady.

The Emperor William I. died March 9, 1888, at the age of almost ninety-one; and the Crown Prince succeeded him on the thrones of Prussia and Germany.

The new Emperor FREDERICK was doomed to follow his illustrious father to the grave in a very short time. At his accession his disease was so far advanced that he was unable to speak. He was a man of liberal views, and desired that the suffrage be free and untrammelled, and not subject to the influence and pressure of the government. His opposition to the exercise of government pressure in the elections involved the new Emperor in a contest with Prince Bismarck, whose arbitrary and tyrannical policy he had always opposed, and with whom he had never been on pleasant terms. Bismarck and the entire German Ministry threatened to resign, and a political crisis was feared.

To the misfortune of the German people, who were sincerely attached to the new Emperor on account of his liberal political views, his malady carried him off after a short reign of three months, June 15, 1888; and his son WILLIAM II. became King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany.

William II. did not entertain the liberal political views of his father, but rather held the ideas of his grandfather and Prince Bismarck in favor of arbitrary and despotic government. He and the Iron Chancellor were therefore in perfect accord in the policy to be pursued in the future. He had no love for his mother Victoria, the daughter of the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland. He therefore sanctioned the harsh treatment which Bismarck advised toward his mother, the Empress Dowager of Germany and Princess Royal of England, who thus became a virtual prisoner in her own palace. Some remarks which the new Emperor made upon his accession were not reassuring to his subjects, but caused dismay and alarm throughout Germany. Perceiving the error which he had thus made, he was more guarded in his expressions thereafter; but it was evident that he meant to be sovereign in fact as well as in name.

THE BALKAN STATES.

We have already alluded to the action of England under Mr. Gladstone's direction in forcing the Porte to compel the Albanians to surrender Dulcigno to the Montenegrins in the fall of 1880. In the spring of 1881 the Greek frontier question threatened to bring on a war between Greece and Turkey, but peace was preserved by the intervention of the Great Powers.

On April 23, 1881, four persons, formerly domestic servants in the Sultan's palace, were arrested, charged with the assassination of Sultan Abdul Aziz. The four persons confessed that they suffocated the Sultan, after which they opened the veins and arteries of his arms to make it appear that he had committed suicide. Two ex-palace officers and an ex-War Minister were implicated. The preliminary inquiry into the assassination resulted in implicating twenty persons in the crime. The trial ended in the conviction of all the accused; and all were sentenced to death, June 29, 1881, except Izzet Pasha and Seyd Pasha, who were sentenced to ten years' penal servitude. On July 25, 1881, Midhat Pasha and all the others sentenced to death, except the two actual assassins, Mustapha the wrestler and Mustapha the gardener, were exiled to Arabia; their death sentences having been commuted by Sultan Abdul Hamid II. to banishment for life.

Roumania was erected into a kingdom, May 22, 1881, by the coronation of Prince CHARLES at Bucharest as *King of Roumania*, with a crown of steel manufactured from the cannon captured from the Turks at Plevna, which was placed upon His Majesty's head by the Presidents of the Roumanian Senate and Chamber of Deputies in the presence of an immense concourse of people; and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

At the unanimous invitation of the Serbian Skuptchina, Prince MILAN accepted the title of *King of Servia*, March 6, 1882. Russia, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary assented to the elevation of Servia into a kingdom. King Milan issued a proclamation, March 9, 1882, thanking the European

Powers for their sympathy toward Serbia, and defining his policy.

The year 1882 opened with a revolt in Herzegovina against Austria-Hungary. The Austro-Hungarian troops routed the Herzegovinian insurgents in numerous small engagements during January, February, March, April and May, 1882. The Herzegovinian rebels were aided by Russian volunteers. The Herzegovinians established a provisional government, but the insurrection was quelled in May, 1882.

As we have seen, the Congress of Berlin in 1878 had divided Turkey's former province of Bulgaria into two semi-independent provinces—the principality of Bulgaria, north of the Balkans, to be tributary to Turkey, with a Christian prince of its own selection; and the province of Eastern Roumelia, south of the Balkans, subject to Turkey, with a Christian governor to be appointed by the Sultan. As we have also seen, the Bulgarians chose a German prince, Alexander of Battenburg, for their ruler.

The people of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia had never been satisfied with their political separation as arranged by the Treaty of Berlin; and on September 18, 1885, a sudden revolution at Philippopolis, the capital of Eastern Roumelia, made a prisoner of the governor of that province, and brought about a *de facto* union of Eastern Roumelia with Bulgaria, with the desire of the people of both provinces. This plain violation of the Treaty of Berlin at once reopened the Eastern question. The Six Great European Powers virtually acquiesced in the Bulgarian-Eastern Roumelian union; but Turkey demanded the enforcement of the Treaty of Berlin, while Serbia and Greece also demanded the enforcement of that treaty or an extension of their own respective territories at the expense of both Turkey and Bulgaria. Turkey and Bulgaria armed against each other, and Serbia and Greece armed against both Turkey and Bulgaria; while the Six Great European Powers endeavored to preserve the peace of Europe by a conference of their ambassadors at Constantinople in October, 1885.

Serbia and Greece had never been satisfied with the limits assigned to them by the Six Great European Powers in the Treaty of Berlin. Serbia always regarded the western portion of Bulgaria, embracing the strong fortress of Widdin and the present Bulgarian capital, Sophia, as rightfully a part of Servian territory, because it belonged to Old Serbia in the Middle Ages, when Serbia was a great independent kingdom. Serbia also demanded the extension of her territory southward, so as to embrace all that had once belonged to the Old Servian kingdom, and as a set-off to the sudden increase of Bulgarian territory by the union of Eastern Roumelia with Bulgaria, as brought about by the violation of the Treaty of Berlin by the Bulgarian-Eastern Roumelian revolution of September 18, 1885.

Serbia accordingly waged war on Bulgaria about the middle of October, 1885. King Milan of Serbia was obliged to assume this aggressive attitude in order to save his crown, as any failure on his part to satisfy the martial ardor of his subjects would have resulted in his dethronement by a popular revolution at Belgrade. Prince Alexander of Bulgaria was anxious to avoid a war with Serbia, and desired to unite with the King of Serbia in a war against the Turks. But Serbia was aggressive and firm in her attitude, demanding either a restoration of the *status quo ante* in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia or an extension of Servian territory.

The Servians are far superior to the Bulgarians as a military people. The Servian army numbered about one hundred and seventy thousand men; while the united armies of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia numbered about one hundred and thirty-five thousand men, far inferior in valor and discipline to the Servians.

The Servian armies invaded Bulgaria at several points November 14, 1885, and advanced on Sophia and Widdin. There was constant fighting for six days, November 14-19, 1885, during the first four of which the Servian armies under King Milan were victorious. The Bulgarian army in the



EMPEROR WILLIAM II.

Widdin district was totally destroyed, and the Servians were rapidly marching on Sophia, the Bulgarian capital; but the tide of victory soon turned, and the Bulgarians under Prince Alexander repulsed the Servians at Slevnitza and recaptured Bresnik, November 18 and 19, 1885. These unexpected Servian reverses created alarm at Belgrade, the Servian capital, and exposed Servia to a Bulgarian invasion, as the whole Servian army was in full retreat. The tables were thus completely turned. The Servians were now on the defensive, and King Milan was fighting for his throne. The Great Powers proposed an armistice, and King Milan sued for peace; but Prince Alexander refused to treat until Servia agreed to pay a war indemnity to Bulgaria. An armistice was concluded by the intervention of the Great Powers; but Servia rejected Bulgaria's terms of peace, and hostilities were renewed in December. After a long and desperate engagement, the Servians captured the town of Veliki-Izor from the Bulgarians, December 12, 1885. The mediation of the Great Powers again brought on a suspension of hostilities, which led to a treaty of peace.

In the fall of 1886 the irrepressible Eastern question again came to the front in general European politics, and the unsettled East again occupied the attention of the European public. Although Russia brought about the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire by the absolute independence of Servia, Roumania and Montenegro and the semi-independence of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, she desired all these pretty states of the Balkan peninsula to be subservient to her wishes, and not to thwart her in anywise in her ultimate designs upon Constantinople and the dominion of the entire Balkan peninsula. Bulgaria, Roumania and Servia, since their liberation from Turkish rule, have shown themselves as determined to be as free of Russian dictation and arrogance as they had been to be free of the Ottoman yoke.

Inharmonious relations had for several years existed between Russia and Bulgaria.

Bulgaria's aims were in the way of Russia's designs. Prince Alexander of Bulgaria had in every way shown himself to be an able and high spirited ruler, and had won the affections of the great majority of his subjects. Although he ultimately failed in his design for the complete union of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia in 1885, and had to content himself with the governorship of Eastern Roumelia, through the opposition of Turkey, Russia and the other Great European Powers, which would not consent to have the Treaty of Berlin thus torn to pieces, he added immensely to his own prestige as a ruler and to that of Bulgaria as a state by his military victories over the Servian invaders of his dominions in the fall of 1885.

Russia never forgave Prince Alexander for his independent spirit and his refusal to be the mere puppet of Russia in her ambitious designs, and for that reason Russia earnestly desired and insidiously endeavored to encompass his overthrow. His dismissal of the Russian officers in the Bulgarian army gave mortal offense to the Czar's government, and made him the victim of a Russian plot.

Prince Alexander was compelled to abdicate in the night, in consequence of a pro-Russian conspiracy in his army, brought about by the intrigues and the secret instigation of General Kaulbars, the Russian agent in Bulgaria; the prince's palace at Sophia having been invaded by his enemies at midnight, August 19-20, 1886. The prince was escorted to the frontier, and the conspirators formed a provisional government with the support of the Russian agent; but this pro-Russian military conspiracy totally failed, because of the steadfast loyalty of the Bulgarians to Prince Alexander.

This sudden revolution produced a reaction in his favor, and the greater part of his subjects and soldiers declared their determination to fight for their deposed prince. The provisional government established at Sophia by the friends of Russia in the Bulgarian army was overthrown, and the leading military conspirators were court-martialed and

sentenced to military execution, August 25, 1886. This sudden reaction and counter-revolution in Prince Alexander's favor showed that the military conspirators had reckoned without their host, and the prince returned to Bulgaria amid the enthusiastic greetings of his loyal subjects.

The interference of General Kaulbars, the Russian agent in Bulgaria, prevented the punishment of the conspirators who had kidnapped and deposed Prince Alexander. The independent spirit of the Bulgarian people, as shown in their loyalty and devotion to their prince, angered the Czar Alexander III. of Russia; and Prince Alexander was obliged to abdicate the Bulgarian throne, to appease the anger of the Russian Autocrat, although the prince possessed the enthusiastic and devoted support of his subjects, August 30, 1886. He departed to his native home in Germany, and a regency was appointed by the Bulgarian Sobranje until a new prince could be elected.

The insignificance of the pro-Russian party in Bulgaria was shown by the Bulgarian elections on October 12, 1886, when the Bulgarian Ministry was sustained by an immense majority of the Bulgarian people, who reelected a new assembly, or Sobranje, with a large anti-Russian majority. This was a great disappointment to the Czar of Russia. But the Bulgarian people were determined to preserve their national independence.

The Czar Alexander III. desired the election of Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia as Prince of Bulgaria, but the Bulgarian Sobranje and people refused to accept him. On July 7, 1887, the Bulgarian Sobranje elected Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha as Prince of Bulgaria; and that prince accepted the new dignity, notwithstanding the protests and remonstrances of Russia. Prince Ferdinand arrived at the Bulgarian capital in August, 1887, and was welcomed with enthusiasm by his new subjects. His election was confirmed by the Sultan of Turkey. Russia was very angry, and proposed to Turkey a joint Russo-Turkish occupation of Bulgaria. Russia also appealed to the

other Great Powers, and sought to prevent the legalization of Prince Ferdinand's acts. The new prince's throne was thus very shaky at first, and Bulgaria appealed to Turkey for aid in case of a Russian occupation of Bulgaria. On September 2, 1887, a new Ministry under M. Stambuloff was formed in Bulgaria. Prince Ferdinand's candidates were everywhere chosen to the Sobranje in the elections held on October 9, 1887, thus showing that he was sustained by the great mass of the Bulgarian people.

On March 6, 1889, King Milan of Servia, who had in the meantime been divorced from his queen, Natalie, abdicated his throne in favor of his little son, ALEXANDER I., and appointed a regency under M. Ristitch, his Prime Minister, to conduct the government during the little king's minority.

EVENTS IN CENTRAL ASIA.

In the meantime a Russian expedition under General Lomakin was operating against the Turkomans in Central Asia; and on August 28, 1880, this expedition met with a disastrous repulse in a desperate attack on the Tekke-Turkomans at Geok-Tepe. In March, 1880, General Skobelev was appointed to command the Russian expedition against the Tekke-Turkomans. In July, 1880, General Skobelev started on a reconnoissance against the Tekke-Turkomans, and destroyed provision stores near Geok-Tepe. After a brilliant and successful reconnoissance of nine days with the Tekke-Turkomans, July 13-22, 1880, General Skobelev gained signal advantages. On December 24, 1880, the Russians under General Skobelev were repulsed by the Tekke-Turkomans near Geok-Tepe; but on January 4, 1881, General Skobelev defeated the Tekke-Turkomans in a sanguinary engagement; and in April, 1881, the Tekke-Turkomans submitted, and General Skobelev's expedition ended.

In the summer of 1881 civil war broke out in Afghanistan, caused by Ayoob Khan's endeavor to wrest the Afghan throne from the Ameer Abdur Rahman Khan. On July 27, 1881, Ayoob Khan totally defeated the

Ameer, who lost all his baggage and cannon. Grave complications were feared, and the British Indian government was greatly alarmed, but the Ameer soon retrieved his lost fortunes. The civil war in Afghanistan was ended by the capture of Herat by the Ameer's army after a battle with Ayoob Khan's insurgent force, in September, 1881.

In 1887 a rebellion broke out in Afghanistan at the secret instigation of Russia; and the Ameer was several times defeated, but he afterward gained several great victories and triumphed over the rebels.

EVENTS IN AFRICA.

Since 1884 the different European nations have been seeking to extend their power and influence in Africa. Germany extended her trade in Eastern Africa by treaties with the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1884 and 1885, and also enlarged her trade and influence on the coast of Western Africa. Late in 1884 the Congo Free State was established by the European Powers, and the King of Belgium was placed at its head. Within the last eighteen years the American Henry M. Stanley has been making explorations in Africa.

The British and Egyptians were still fighting the followers of the dead El Mahdi on the Upper Nile, who were led by a new Mahdi. Osman Digma was defeated by the Abyssinians in 1887. In the meantime Italy, England's ally, had taken part in the war against the Mahdi's followers and had landed troops at Massowah, on the Red Sea. The Italians were defeated by the Abyssinians, who then besieged Massowah, February, 1887. The Italians blockaded the coast of Abyssinia, and the Italian government sent an expedition to relieve the garrison of Massowah. Italy had in the meantime annexed Massowah, with the approval of England. In the meantime Emin Bey, the governor of Egypt's equatorial province, was in a perilous position in the midst of hostile natives. With the approval of the British government, Mr. Stanley led an expedition for the relief of Emin Bey; and the Egyptian government aided this expedition. The British and Egyptian forces defeated the Mahdists at Suakim, December 20, 1888, driving them from their intrenchments. Emin Bey defeated six thousand Mahdists in 1889. King John of Abyssinia was killed in battle with the Mahdists at Metemneh.

SECTION VI.—THE SPANISH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.



EXICO, or New Spain, and South America, during the three centuries that they were dependencies of Spain, were to a great extent isolated from the rest of the world. The most exclusive policy was pursued by Spain toward her American colonies. No foreigners, except such as desired to make discoveries in natural history, were permitted to travel in Spanish America, and then only with the written consent of the King of Spain. The commerce of the Spanish American colonies was crippled by the most severe restrictions, and most of the wealth of the colonies flowed into the mother country. The Spanish

Americans were taught to look upon Spain as the mother of nations. The condition of the Creoles and Indians of Spanish America was the most deplorable imaginable. The natives were the victims of the most cruel oppression; being forced to work in the mines, where many of them perished. The influence of priestcraft and Jesuitism contributed to keep the inhabitants of Spanish America in intellectual darkness, and ignorance and superstition enabled Spain to uphold her dominion in Spanish America for three centuries. The condition of the Spanish Americans was far worse than that of the Anglo-Americans, as in the case of the former the intellect was enslaved. In

1780 the standard of revolt was raised in Peru by Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas, who endeavored to restore his country's independence; but, after a bloody struggle of two years, the insurrection was suppressed, and Tupac Amaru was put to a cruel death, his body being drawn in quarters by horses.

The immediate cause of the Spanish American Revolution had its origin in Europe. When intelligence of the dethronement of the legitimate royal family of Spain, by the Emperor Napoleon I., reached Spanish America, in 1808, the inhabitants there, who since the first conquest of the country had been loyal to Spain, declared in favor of the patriots of Spain, who had taken up arms against the French invaders of their country, and in defense of their rightful sovereign, Ferdinand VII. The Spanish Americans also took up arms for Ferdinand VII., for the purpose of preventing Spanish America from being placed under the dominion of Joseph Bonaparte, the so-called King of Spain; and they prepared to resist the viceroys, who, in order to retain their offices, for the most part sided with the French and acquiesced in the usurpation of Napoleon. But the motives of the Spanish Americans were misunderstood by the Provisional Junta in Spain, which sent out armies for their subjugation, and which by its tyranny soon alienated the Spanish American colonies from the mother country; and the struggle assumed the shape of a war for independence on the part of the Spanish Americans.

THE REVOLUTION IN MEXICO.

In Mexico, or New Spain, all offices were in the possession of European Spaniards; while the Creoles, or native inhabitants, were deprived of all share in the government. The Viceroy of New Spain allowed the Creoles a share in the government, in order to secure their support to Ferdinand VII., the lawful King of Spain. This measure was opposed by the provincial court of the Audiencia, which, siding with the European Spaniards, seized and imprisoned the Viceroy, and again deprived the

Mexican Creoles of their rights and privileges. These arbitrary proceedings increased the bitterness on the part of the Creoles toward the European Spaniards.

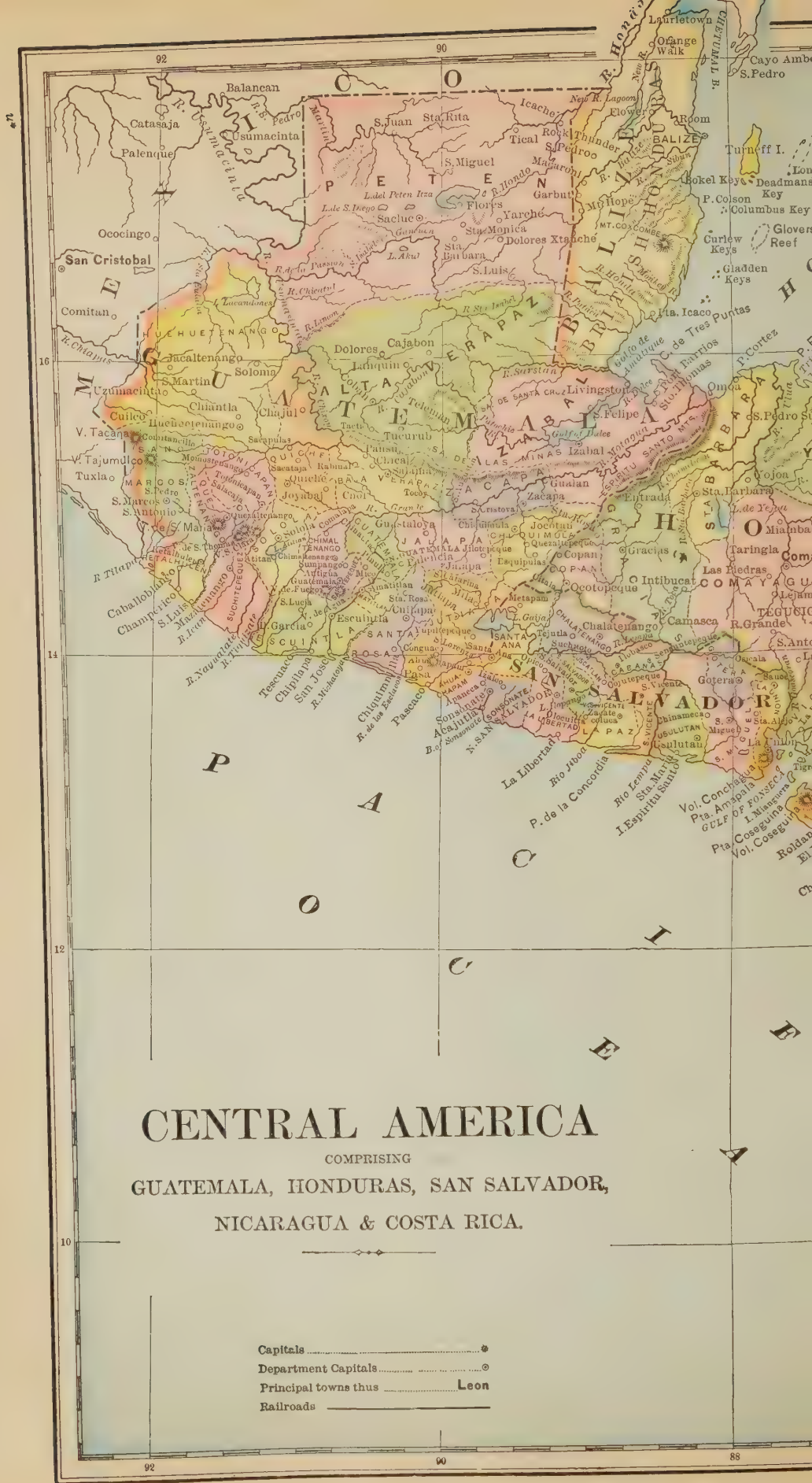
On the 16th of September, 1810, the Revolution in Mexico was begun, in the little town of Dolores, by a priest named Hidalgo. The insurrection spread with wonderful rapidity, and Hidalgo soon had one hundred thousand men under arms. With this immense force, Hidalgo advanced toward the city of Mexico and gained some victories, but soon made a hasty and unaccountable retreat.

Hidalgo gained some victories during the latter part of the same year, 1810, but tarnished his glory by his atrocities. The number of Spaniards put to death by his orders amounted to several thousand. After being several times defeated, Hidalgo was taken prisoner, and was shot by order of the Spanish authorities, in July, 1811. After the death of Hidalgo, Morelos, a warlike priest, who was as generous as brave, gained many brilliant victories over the Spaniards, during the years 1811 and 1812; but he was defeated, captured and shot in 1813.

In 1813 a Congress which assembled at Chilpanzingo declared Mexico an independent nation. Various partisan leaders, such as Victoria, Bravo, Guerrero, Teran, Rayon and Torres, carried on a guerrilla warfare against the royalists until 1819, when the patriots were defeated, and Spanish authority was temporarily reëstablished in Mexico.

On the 24th of February, 1821, Don Augustin Iturbide, who had previously fought on the side of the Spaniards, proclaimed the celebrated *Plan of Iguala*, which declared Mexico independent of Spain, its government a constitutional monarchy, and its religion Roman Catholic, while all Mexicans who ranged themselves on the side of independence were invested with the rights of citizenship. After a feeble resistance on the part of the Spaniards, Spanish authority was overthrown, and Mexico became an independent nation.

On the 24th of September, 1821, the Mex-





ican capital was entered in triumph by Iturbide. A Congress which was assembled in 1822 elevated Iturbide to the dignity of *Emperor of Mexico* with the title of AUGUSTIN I. Soon a dispute arose between the Emperor and the Congress. Iturbide ended the dispute by dissolving the Congress; but his arbitrary conduct produced a revolution which resulted in compelling him to abdicate his crown and to flee from the country, May, 1823. He retired to Europe, but returned to Mexico in February, 1824; and, after making a fruitless effort to regain his former power, he was shot by order of the provincial congress of Tamaulipas.

After the overthrow and flight of Iturbide, in 1823, a Congress was convened, and a new constitution was established, by which Mexico became a federal republic. This Federal Constitution, which was somewhat modeled after the Constitution of the United States of America, declared the *United States of Mexico* a federal republic, and divided the government into three departments—legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative power was vested in a National Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives; the Senate to be composed of two members from each State, elected for a term of four years by the Legislatures of the States; and the House of Representatives to consist of members elected for a term of two years by the citizens of the several States. The executive power was vested in a President, who, with a Vice President, was to be elected by the Legislatures of the several Mexican States for a term of four years. The President was to be a Mexican born, and thirty-five years of age. The judicial power was vested in a Supreme Court, consisting of eleven Judges and one Attorney-General, who were to be elected by the State Legislatures, and who were not to be removed except in cases specified by law. With many excellent features, this constitution did not provide for trial by jury; and it declared the religion of Mexico to be perpetually the "Roman Catholic Apostolic," to the exclusion of all other religious systems.

THE REVOLUTION IN COLOMBIA.

In August, 1809, a junta was established at Quito by the inhabitants of that city. The junta was suppressed by the viceroy of New Grenada; and, on the 2d of August, 1810, about three hundred of the supporters of the junta were treacherously massacred by the royalist troops. During the same year, 1810, a junta was established at Caraccas, where a declaration of independence was promulgated. Caraccas was blockaded by order of the regency of Spain. In their conduct, the colonists were acting in the name of King Ferdinand VII., and in opposition to the various juntas in Spain, and to the French, who had almost subdued the Spanish peninsula. While the war was raging in the Spanish peninsula, Spanish troops were sent to America to reduce the colonists to submission. A sanguinary war of twelve years' duration desolated New Grenada, Ecuador and Venezuela, which three provinces were soon united with the title of Colombia. In the course of this war the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated by the Spaniards.

The Colombians, provoked at the tyranny of the mother country, now resolved upon a political separation from Spain; and on the 5th of July, 1811, a Congress assembled at Caraccas declared Venezuela independent of Spain. Soon afterward the provinces composing New Grenada declared their independence; and their example was followed by Mexico, in 1813, and Buenos Ayres, in 1816. Still Spain blindly persisted in her despotic course until her American colonies were lost to her forever. Napoleon and Joseph Bonaparte were doing all in their power to promote the cause of Spanish American independence, with the view of strengthening themselves in Spain.

A frightful conspiracy against the provisional government of Venezuela was suppressed in 1810. A constitution was adopted in Venezuela in 1812. A junta which had been established in Bogota, in July, 1810, gave place to a congress which conducted the affairs of the Revolution. A junta had been formed at Popayan and Santa Martha.

A junta had been established at Carthagena in 1810. The various provinces, acting separately from their federal governments, and often at war with them, prosecuted the war against the royalists with vigor. The royalists in Popayan, after defeating the patriots, were themselves defeated.

The earthquake in Venezuela in March, 1812, which destroyed Caraccas, greatly injured the cause of the Revolution; as many of the patriots, believing the earthquake to be a punishment inflicted upon them from Heaven for their rebellious conduct, joined the royal cause. Space will not permit us to give an account of the many conflicts between the Colombians and the Spaniards, and the changes of government and civil wars among the Colombians themselves, while struggling for freedom against their common enemy.

After the earthquake at Caraccas that city was taken by the Spaniards, who reestablished their authority in Venezuela, and who filled the dungeons of Puerto Cabello with the defeated patriots. The resistance to Spanish power was renewed in Venezuela by the illustrious Simon Bolivar, who soon defeated the Spaniards and liberated Venezuela from their yoke. The royalists then armed the slaves against the patriots; and the war was renewed with vigor and ended in the triumph of the patriots, who, under Bolivar, gained the battle of Carabobo on the 28th of May, 1814; but soon afterward Bolivar was defeated at La Puerta, and the royalists recovered Venezuela.

In 1814 the Emperor Napoleon I. was overthrown in Europe by the allied Powers, and Ferdinand VII. came in undisputed possession of the throne of Spain. The tyrannical measures of Ferdinand toward the rebellious Americans rendered forever impossible all hopes of a reconciliation between Spain and her revolted colonies. The patriots greatly weakened their cause by their internal dissensions. When the province of Cundinamarca refused to join the Colombian confederacy, the Colombian Congress resorted to military force, and sent General Bolivar with an army to compel Cundina-

marca to unite with the other provinces of Colombia. Bolivar compelled the city of Bogota, the capitol of Cundinamarca, to surrender; whereupon the rebellious province was obliged to join the confederation.

In 1815 a Spanish army under the brutal Morillo arrived from Cadiz, conquered the island of Margarita on the Colombian coast, and captured the city of Carthagena. General Bolivar again attempted to liberate Venezuela, but he was defeated and compelled to evacuate the province; and the Spaniards under General Morillo conquered New Grenada, captured Bogota, and massacred many of the patriots. On the 5th of April, 1817, the city of Barcelona, in Venezuela, was taken by the Spaniards after a furious assault; but soon afterward the Colombian army under Generals Bolivar and Piar took the town of Angostura, in Guiana; and Morillo made an unsuccessful attack on the island of Margarita, which had again revolted.

On the 16th of October, 1817, General Piar, who had fought bravely for freedom in Colombia, having been detected in a conspiracy for obtaining the supreme power, was executed. The patriots now received assistance from enthusiastic individuals from Great Britain, who joined the Colombian armies and fought heroically for freedom in Colombia. Patriotic persons from the United States also aided the Colombians.

General Bolivar, after marching his army into New Grenada, gained the most brilliant victory of the whole war in the battle of Boyaca, on the 7th of August, 1819. Soon afterward Bolivar entered Bogota, where he established a provisional government for New Grenada, after which he entered Venezuela. On the 17th of December, 1819, the Congress sitting at Angostura passed the fundamental law which united New Grenada and Venezuela into one state with the title of the *Republic of Colombia*. General McGregor, with a patriot force, after taking Puerto Cabello, was defeated by the royalists. The army and navy of Colombia captured Rio de la Hacha in April, 1820. An armistice was now con-

cluded, and General Morillo was succeeded in command of the Spanish army by General Morales.

The patriots captured Coro on the 11th of May, 1821; and on the 24th of June of the same year Bolivar defeated the Spaniards in the battle of Carabobo. The Congress of New Grenada, which shortly after convened at Cucuta, ratified the union with Venezuela. A Spanish flotilla was destroyed on the 30th of the same month, June, 1821, by the Colombian squadron under Admiral Biron, who compelled the city of Carthagena to capitulate on the 23d of September of the same year, 1821.

On the 1st of June, 1822, the Colombians under General Sucre defeated the Spaniards in the bloody battle of Pinchincha, which liberated Quito, or Ecuador, from Spanish authority. The Colombian squadron destroyed the Spanish flotilla in Lake Maracaybo on the 23d of July, 1823, and captured the town of Maracaybo with the Spanish army under General Morales.

Finally the long war was closed and the independence of Colombia secured by the surrender of Puerto Cabello to the patriots, in the beginning of December, 1823. The United States had already acknowledged the independence of Colombia in 1822. In 1824 Bolivar marched into Peru; and a part of his army under General Sucre gained the battle of Ayacucho, which put an end to Spanish power in America.

THE REVOLUTION IN LA PLATA.

The news of the dethronement of the legitimate King of Spain by Napoleon, and the rise of the Spanish people against the usurpation of the Bonapartes, occasioned popular movements in Buenos Ayres. The Revolution in Buenos Ayres, or the provinces of La Plata, began on the 25th of May, 1810, when the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres established a provisional junta. In March, 1811, a new junta was appointed. The Spaniards of Monte Video were opposed to this proceeding, and sent an army against Buenos Ayres; and war was commenced.

The royalists of Buenos Ayres were de-

feated; and a revolt was inaugurated in the Banda Oriental, of which Monte Video was the capital. The patriots of Buenos Ayres, like those of all other parts of Spanish America, soon quarreled among themselves; and for ten years, while prosecuting the war against the Spaniards in Upper Peru and Chili, Buenos Ayres was distracted by numerous revolutions and civil wars.

The Banda Oriental, with Artigas at its head, was often at war with Buenos Ayres, and with the Brazilians, who claimed its territory. Paraguay became independent in 1812, with Dr. Francia as Dictator.

On the 9th of July, 1816, a Congress at Buenos Ayres declared the confederated provinces of the La Plata independent of Spain. Civil war and anarchy continued in the province until 1821, when a period of tranquillity and prosperity returned. In 1829 Spain acknowledged the independence of La Plata, or the Argentine Republic.

THE REVOLUTION IN BOLIVIA.

Bolivia, or Upper Peru, as it was called at the time, was the first of the Spanish American colonies to rise in rebellion against the despotism of Old Spain. On the 25th of March, 1809, the citizens of the wealthy and enterprising city of La Paz established a provisional junta. The city of La Paz was attacked by the royalists from Buenos Ayres, and, after a heroic defense, was forced to surrender, when many of the unfortunate inhabitants suffered death on the scaffold. The people of La Paz revolted a second time, but were again subdued. The neighboring cities of Cochabamba and Potosi, which had also risen in insurrection, were likewise reduced.

The bloody war between the patriots and the royalists in Upper Peru continued with various success until the close of 1824, when the memorable battle of Ayacucho put an end to Spanish authority in South America, and Upper Peru became an independent republic, and was named *Bolivia*, in honor of the great Colombian President and Dictator, General Simon Bolivar, who framed a constitution for the Republic.

THE REVOLUTION IN CHILI.

The revolutionary movement in Chili began in July, 1810, when the people of Santiago deposed their Captain-General and put another in his place. A junta was formed, which assembled a Congress to consider the condition of the country. Disturbances took place in 1811, which resulted in the exile of the opponents of the Revolution. The three ambitious brothers named Carrera soon overthrew the Congress, and took the government of Chili into their own hands. In 1812 a Spanish army invaded Chili from Peru; and, through the dissensions of the Chilian leaders, O'Higgins and the Carreras, the authority of the royalists was reëstablished in Chili.

In 1817 the struggling Chilians found a deliverer in the valiant and patriotic San Martin, who, after crossing the Andes from Buenos Ayres at the head of a patriot army, overthrew the Spaniards in the battle of Chacabaco, which was fought on the 12th of February, 1817, and which gave independence to Chili. The Spaniards reconquered Chili; but their power was hopelessly broken, and the independence of Chili permanently secured, in the decisive battle of Maypu, fought on the 5th of April, 1818.

THE REVOLUTION IN PERU.

Peru, the land of the Incas, was the last of the Spanish American colonies to strike for freedom. The government of Chili, convinced that Chilian independence was not secure so long as the royalists held Peru, sent an army under San Martin into Peru, in 1820, for the purpose of expelling the Spaniards and encouraging the Peruvians to throw off the Spanish yoke. A Chilian squadron, under the command of the English admiral, Lord Cochrane, whose standard was joined by many Englishmen and Americans, harassed the royalists on the coast of Peru, capturing many Spanish vessels. On San Martin's appearance in Peru, the Peruvians rose almost unanimously; and the independence of Peru was declared. The Chilians everywhere defeated the Spaniards; and San Martin, after nobly proving

his disinterestedness by declining the proffered Dictatorship, returned to Chili.

The Spaniards soon regained their lost power in Peru, which they held until the Colombian army under Bolivar marched to the rescue of the Peruvians. On the 6th of August, 1824, the Colombians, under General Sucre, gained a victory in the battle of Junin; and, on the 9th of December of the same year, 1824, Sucre annihilated the Spaniards in the decisive battle of Ayacucho, which secured the independence of Peru, and which swept away forever every vestige of Spanish power on the American continent. In 1826 Callao, the last stronghold of the Spaniards in South America, surrendered to the Peruvians, and Spanish America became free.

SOUTH AMERICA SINCE THE REVOLUTION.

Brazil peacefully secured a political separation from Portugal in 1822, with DOM PEDRO I., of the royal House of Braganza, as Emperor. In 1831 the Brazilians, becoming dissatisfied with the government of Dom Pedro I., compelled him to abdicate his crown in favor of his son, DOM PEDRO II., who was then only five years old. During the minority of Dom Pedro II. the government of Brazil was conducted by a regency.

General Bolivar cherished the grand design of the formation of a confederation of all the Spanish American Republics, with himself at its head as Dictator; and in 1826 a Congress composed of representatives of all the Spanish American Republics convened at Panama, on the Isthmus of Darien. The deliberations of this Congress were not attended with any important result, and the plan of a Spanish American confederacy failed.

For several years war raged between the Empire of Brazil and the Republic of La Plata, or the Argentine Confederation, respecting the possession of the Banda Oriental, situated between the two countries. Through the mediation of Great Britain, peace was concluded in 1828, by which it was agreed to erect the Banda Oriental into an independent republic under the name of

Uruguay. The Dictator, General Rosas, governed the Argentine Confederation from 1835 to 1855. Both the Argentine Republic and Uruguay have been much disturbed by civil wars.

A war broke out between the Republics of Colombia and Peru in 1829, which resulted in the defeat of the Peruvians. General Bolivar's ambition created for him many enemies, and greatly weakened his popularity with his countrymen; and a civil war was only prevented by his death, in 1830. In 1831 the Republic of Colombia was dissolved; and its three great divisions—New Grenada, Venezuela and Ecuador—became separate republics. Since their separation, each of these republics, like all the other Spanish American states, have been distracted by almost constant revolutions and civil wars. In 1861 the title of New Grenada was changed, and that republic has since been known as the *United States of Colombia*.

Paraguay declared its independence in 1810; and in 1812 Dr. Francia made himself Dictator, and ruled with almost absolute and despotic power until 1840, when he died. Under the government of Dr. Francia, foreigners were not permitted to travel in Paraguay, and every inhabitant was compelled to learn to read and write. Francia's rule, though despotic, was beneficial to Paraguay.

In 1836 Peru and Bolivia were united in a league called the *Peru-Bolivian Confederation*, at the head of which was General Santa Cruz as Dictator. In 1836 a war broke out between this Confederation and Chili. The Chilians defeated the Peruvians in the battle of Yungay, on the 11th of July, 1839. General Santa Cruz was overthrown and obliged to flee from Peru; whereupon the Peru-Bolivian Confederation was dissolved, and Peru and Bolivia again became separate republics. Both these republics have since been the scenes of revolution and anarchy.

In 1864 a war broke out between Spain and Peru. The following year, 1865, Chili joined Peru in the war. The towns on the

coast of Chili and Peru were bombarded by the Spanish fleets. Valparaiso, in Chili, and Callao, in Peru, withstood these attacks. In January, 1866, the Republics of Venezuela, Ecuador and Bolivia concluded an alliance with Peru and Chili in the war. Active hostilities closed with the year 1866, but peace was not formally made until the beginning of 1871.

The interference of the Paraguayan Dictator, Francisco Lopez, in the domestic affairs of Uruguay led to a war of Brazil, Uruguay and the Argentine Confederation against Paraguay in 1864. Bloody battles were fought on Paraguayan soil with various results. Under the leadership of their able Dictator, the Paraguayans fought heroically for the preservation of their national existence, which was threatened by the encroachments of their enemies. But Lopez was driven from one stronghold to another; and, after an enormous expenditure of blood and treasure, this terrible war closed, in the early part of 1870, in the defeat and humiliation of Paraguay. The hard-hearted Lopez, refusing to surrender, was put to death by a Brazilian soldier. The conquerors established a provisional government in Paraguay.

In the spring of 1879 a dispute arose between Chili and Bolivia, with regard to the transfer of certain territory by Chili to Bolivia on condition that Bolivia should not tax the Chilean residents therein. Bolivia ceased to impose taxation, but confiscated certain nitrate works owned by a Chilean company. Chili retaliated by sending troops into Bolivia and by blockading the Bolivian ports. Peru formed an alliance with Bolivia.

The Peruvians entered upon the war with a great deal of enthusiasm. President Daza of Bolivia marched against the Chilians with five thousand men. The Chilians had nine thousand men in Bolivia. The Bolivians took Atacama, April 18, 1879. On May 27th a fierce naval engagement occurred off Iquique, in Peru, between the Chilean wooden vessels *Esmeralda* and *Covadonga*, and the Peruvian iron-clads *Independencia* and *Huascar*; all the vessels except

the *Huascar* being sunk. The Peruvian iron-clads *Huascar* and *Union* afterward visited Chilean ports, destroying launches, and capturing the Chilean steamer *Rimac* with a Chilean cavalry regiment fully equipped and supplied with horses, besides three vessels loaded with coal and copper. The Chileans resumed the blockade of Iquique and threatened an attack on Lima, in consequence of which there was a general call to arms in the Peruvian capital. Pisagua, in Peru, was bombarded by the Chileans. The Peruvian and Bolivian armies under General Campero forced the Chileans to evacuate Calama, and defeated the Chilean corps under Colonel Ruiz. The *Huascar* attacked Antofagasta, August 28, 1879, and, after a four hours' engagement, silenced the Chilean fire and dismounted the principal Chilean battery.

A severe engagement between the Peruvian and Chilean fleets occurred off Mejillones, October 8, 1879, in which the famous Peruvian ram *Huascar* was captured by the Chileans. The loss of the *Huascar* caused a riot in Lima, which led to the resignation of the Peruvian Cabinet. On November 6, 1879, Pisagua, in Peru, was captured by the Chilean land and naval forces, after a severe bombardment of five hours, five hundred Chileans being killed and wounded. On November 16, 1879, a desperate battle was fought at Iquique, in Peru, in which the allied Peruvian and Bolivian army was defeated by the Chileans, who occupied Iquique after the town had been burned by the allies. On November 19, 1879, an allied Peruvian and Bolivian army of eleven thousand men under General Buendia was defeated in an attack on Dolores, near Aqua Santo, by a Chilean corps of six thousand men, which, after receiving reinforcements, routed the allies and occupied their positions; the allies losing four thousand men killed, wounded and missing, while the Chileans lost three thousand men. On November 27, 1879, the allies were again defeated by the Chileans with heavy loss at Tarapaca.

The Chilean victories caused intense excitement and consternation in Lima, the

capital of Peru. President Prado fled from the country; and on December 22, 1879, Don Nicolas Pierola was proclaimed Dictator of Peru. President Daza of Bolivia was also deposed, and fled from the country; whereupon General Jamacho made himself President of Bolivia.

Late in February, 1880, the Chilean forces occupied Ilo and Moquegua, in Peru, taking the garrison of the latter place prisoners. On February 25, 1880, a Chilean army of twelve thousand men landed near Arica, in Peru, and the Chileans made a naval demonstration against the town; but the *Huascar* was driven off by the Peruvian corvette *Manco Capac*. On March 11, 1880, the Peruvian corvette *Union* forced the blockade of Arica, fighting seven hours with two Chilean iron-clads and a transport. On April 14, 1880, a naval encounter occurred off the river Loa between the Chilean corvette *Magalaneo* on one side and the Peruvian corvettes *Union* and *Pilcomayo* on the other, the Chilean vessel being obliged to retreat. In the meantime Callao, in Peru, was blockaded by the Chilean fleet, and the Peruvians made great preparations for defense. Callao was bombarded by the Chilean navy, April 22, 1880. The allied Peruvian and Bolivian forces under General Campero were defeated in a terrible battle at Tacna, in Peru, May 25, 1880; the allies being compelled to evacuate Tacna, which was then occupied by the victorious Chileans. On June 7, 1880, the Chileans captured Arica, after a desperate hand-to-hand fight in the outlying forts; the town being sacked and burned, and the Peruvian soldiers bayoneted to the last man. The fight between the fleets was also severe. The Peruvian corvette *Manco Capac* was sunk.

In June, 1880, a confederation was proposed, by which Peru and Bolivia were to be united in a league called *The United States of Peru and Bolivia*. In July, 1880, the Chilean Admiral Riveros threatened to bombard Lima; but the Peruvians made energetic preparations for the defense of their capital. The Chileans devastated the northern provinces of Peru, in September, 1880.

The Chilians opened a bombardment on Callao, September 22, 1880. Peru and Chili accepted the proffered mediation of the United States early in September, 1880; and England, France and Italy forbade an attack upon Lima until the Chilians promised to respect neutral property in the Peruvian capital.

At a peace conference at Arica, Peru, Chili's demands were rejected by Bolivia and Peru, and Peru's motion to refer the whole question to arbitration was rejected by Chili. The Chilean army, thirty thousand strong, then renewed its advance on Peru, and captured Pisco after a stubborn fight, November 19, 1880. On the approach of the Chilians, the principal families of Lima fled from the city, and the Chilians met with little opposition.

The Chilians marched on Lima in three divisions. The Chilians defeated the Peruvians in a sanguinary battle at Chorillos, January 13, 1881, the Peruvians losing nine thousand men killed, wounded and missing. The Chilians again defeated the Peruvians in a bloody battle at Miraflores, January 15, 1881, the Peruvian army being cut to pieces. The victorious Chilians entered Lima two days later, January 17, 1881, and organized a municipal government for the preservation of order. Dictator Pierola of Peru fled from the city on the approach of the invaders, and his brother and Minister of War was captured.

A great riot occurred in Lima just two days before the capture of the city, January 15, 1881, causing a loss of about six million dollars' worth of property. On the night of January 16th about three hundred Chinamen were massacred by a lawless mob in Lima. Callao was sacked by natives, and defended by the Chilean invaders; the natives robbing and murdering, and the Chilians endeavoring to enforce order. Peru was in a state of anarchy, being virtually without any government. President Pierola, having fled from the capital on the approach of the invaders, issued his useless edicts and proclamations from beyond the Cordilleras; and the Peruvian finances had depreciated

almost to worthlessness. The Chilians levied contributions upon the people of Lima. A war of races broke out in the valley of Canette, where more than two thousand Chinamen were massacred by negroes and others, and all the cane-fields, sugar-houses and machinery were destroyed. Many foreigners were murdered by the mob.

About the middle of March, 1881, a provisional government under Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon was established in Peru, under the protection of the Chilians. President Calderon's decrees were resisted by the Peruvian war party, which still adhered to the fugitive Dictator Pierola. Chili's terms of peace were the cession of Antofagasta, Tarapaca and Tacna; a war indemnity; indemnification for Chilians expelled from Peru and Bolivia; reciprocal commercial advantages between Chili and Peru and Bolivia; the extraction of guano to be carried on for account of the Chilean government; and Peru not to fortify her ports for fifty years, nor to acquire a navy for forty years. About the middle of May, 1881, the Chilians withdrew from Lima and its vicinity. Peru and Bolivia were finally obliged to accept Chili's terms of peace.

In 1871 the Brazilian Chambers passed a bill for the gradual abolition of slavery in Brazil, and in 1888 the Chambers passed a measure for the total extinction of slavery within that Empire.

THE REVOLUTION IN BRAZIL.

The most important event in the recent history of South America has been the revolution in Brazil which has transformed that vast Empire into a Republic. The long chain of causes leading to that result include the whole forty-eight years of the reign of the Emperor Dom Pedro II. The Emperor was a man of liberal impulses and aspirations, whose great achievement in the work of social and political reform was the abolition of slavery within his dominions, without compensation to the slaveholders. Ever since the accomplishment of that result, in March, 1888, Dom Pedro II. felt the opposition of a powerful aristocratic party. His advancing

years, and the evidence of the decay of his physical powers, furnished by the recent illness that almost proved fatal, tended to make the aristocratic party arrogant. This party looked forward with pleasure to the prospect of the succession of the Emperor's daughter Isabella, Countess d'Eu, who was extremely unpopular on account of her reactionary sympathies, and who was therefore distrusted by the republicans of Brazil.

The imperial government behaved in such a manner as to disgust the Brazilian army by always evincing a marked distrust of the loyalty of the troops. The Brazilian masses also felt considerable antipathy to the clerical influence at court, which had grown quite marked, and which was certain to assume vast proportions if the Count d'Eu was permitted to become the successor of Dom Pedro II. This sentiment caused the great mass of the poor and common people to sympathize with the republicans in their desire to depose the Emperor, while the emancipation of the slaves had undermined the loyalty of the higher classes by depriving them of a great portion of their wealth.

By a peaceful and bloodless revolution at Rio Janeiro, November 15, 1889, the Emperor Dom Pedro II. was deposed and Brazil was proclaimed a Republic. The Brazilian army was in control. The Ministry resigned, and a provisional government was organized under the leadership of Senhor da Fonseca as President. The situation was entirely peaceful, and the Brazilian people accepted the Republic. The imperial machinery of internal administration was unmolested for the time. The deposed Emperor's Ministers were arrested and kept in close confinement. The provisional government guaranteed protection to the members of the deposed imperial family. The ex-Emperor was then at his summer palace at Petropolis, twenty-five miles north of Rio Janeiro. All business in Rio Janeiro was suspended, but there was no disorder.

The dethroned Dom Pedro II. was ordered to leave the country. He accordingly sailed from Brazil for Portugal, November 19, 1889. The new Republic allowed the

ex-Emperor eight hundred centes de reis (about four hundred thousand dollars) per annum during his life. The scene when the ex-Emperor embarked at Rio Janeiro for Lisbon was a sad one. The vast crowd was kept back by a quadruple cordon of soldiers. Nearly every head was uncovered, and hundreds shed tears. Dom Pedro himself was visibly affected, and his emotion seemed intense, as he repeatedly lifted his hat in response to the farewell greeting which came from the vast multitude, and as he shook the hands of some intimate friends. The ex-Empress, a kind, motherly old lady, appeared to be intensely interested in the many traveling impediments which she was obliged to encounter. The Count and Countess d'Eu proceeded from their carriage to the man-of-war with the air of Sulla departing from Rome.

The new republican government of Brazil announced that it would firmly maintain order. The new Republic adopted the name of the *United States of Brazil*. The five articles of the government decree were:

1. The Republic is proclaimed.
2. The provinces of Brazil, united by federation, compose the United States of Brazil.
3. Each State will form its own local government.
4. Each State will send a representative to the Congress which will convene shortly, and the final decision of which the provisional government will await.
5. Meantime the Governors of the States will adopt means to maintain order and protect the citizens' rights.
6. The nation's internal and external relations will be represented meanwhile by the provisional government.

On November 19th (1889) Senhor da Fonseca, the President of the new Republic, formally announced Dom Pedro's departure for Lisbon. The President also announced that he would continue to exercise supreme executive authority until the country should have decided definitely upon a new government. He also announced that the ordinary functions of administration would continue as under the Empire.

On November 21st the provisional government issued a decree establishing universal suffrage throughout the new Republic. Brazil's population being about twenty million, this decree gave the country about three and a half million voters. Under the Empire there had been only about two hundred thousand voters, as the suffrage was restricted by a provision denying the franchise to all having an income amounting to less than two hundred and twenty-five dollars.

The flag of the new Republic of the United States of Brazil, which was adopted in the place of the old imperial emblem with its crown and coffee leaf, is composed of green and yellow stripes, with a blue field, on which twenty-one stars are represented.

The new Republic was definitely and regularly recognized by the government of the United States of America, November 21, 1889, when Dr. Valente, the Brazilian ambassador at Washington, called at the State Department and informed Secretary Blaine that peace and tranquillity reigned in Brazil and that the new republican government was receiving the support of the Brazilian people. Dr. Valente was also authorized by the provisional government of Brazil to instruct the Brazilian representatives to the International American Congress to continue to act for their country in the sessions of the Congress. The new credentials of the Brazilian envoys, both ordinary and extraordinary, were tendered to and accepted by Secretary Blaine.

The ex-Emperor Dom Pedro II. and his family arrived at Lisbon, Portugal, December 7, 1889. The ex-Emperor and the ex-Empress; their son-in-law and daughter, the Count and Countess d'Eu, with their three sons; and Prince August of Saxe-Coburg, the other son-in-law of the ex-Emperor, came ashore immediately after leaving the steamer *Alagoas*, in which they had sailed from Rio Janeiro. The fallen imperial family were warmly welcomed by their relative, King Charles, who had ascended the throne of Portugal less than two months before.

The deposed Dom Pedro II. refused the pension which the officials of the new Republic had offered him, and so informed the

authorities of the Republic by cable and through the Brazilian legation at Lisbon, stating that he declined to accept any sum beyond that authorized by law. He ascribed the cause of his overthrow to the abolition of slavery, as his championship of the cause of emancipation had alienated the slaveholders from their loyalty to him and his government. He expressed his willingness to return to Brazil if recalled, whether as Emperor, President or private citizen. He set about the preparation of his memoirs of his life and reign, to be published after his death.

The new republican government of Brazil soon promulgated a decree banishing the ex-Emperor and the entire imperial family from Brazil, canceling the grant of five million millreis to Dom Pedro II., and suspending his allowance in the civil list. The authorities of the new Republic, however, promised to secure to him his personal property, worth a million and a half. The ex-Empress died suddenly at Oporto, during a visit to that city in company with her husband, December 28, 1889.

Thus ended the reign of the Emperor Dom Pedro II., one of the best monarchs that ever wore a crown. He immortalized his reign by his unselfish efforts to benefit his subjects, instead of seeking his own personal aggrandizement; and he quietly acquiesced in the logic of events which involved the sacrifice of his throne.

THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO.

After the adoption of the Mexican Federal Constitution of 1824, General Guadalupe Victoria was elected President of Mexico, with General Nicholas Bravo as Vice President. Victoria and Bravo were installed into office on the 1st of January, 1825.

The Administration of President Victoria was very prosperous, and the Mexican Republic enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity than at any previous or subsequent period. The Mexican nation was, however, divided into two political parties—each of which was controlled by a Masonic lodge. The *Escocés*, or aristocratic party, desired a strong central government, like the Federalists of

the United States, and were accused by their opponents of aiming at the establishment of a constitutional monarchy. The *Yorkinos*, or democratic party, desired the preservation of the federal system as opposed to centralism, like the Jefferson Republicans of the United States, and were charged with being anarchists and subverters of public order.

In the Mexican elections of 1826 bribery, corruption and all sorts of disreputable means were resorted to by the two great political parties which divided the nation; and many of the elections were declared null and void, in consequence of the illegal proceedings by which they had been effected. In the same year, 1826, the *Escoces* brought about an insurrection against the government; but the movement was easily suppressed.

Another Presidential election took place in Mexico in the year 1828. The candidate of the *Escoces*, or aristocratic party, was General Pedraza; and the nominee of the *Yorkinos*, or democratic party, was General Guerrero. To the surprise of all, Pedraza was elected by a majority of only two electoral votes over his opponent. The *Yorkinos*, thus defeated in the election, which they declared to have been accomplished by fraud and bribery, determined to place themselves in power by force of arms. The youthful general, Santa Anna, declared that the election of Pedraza had been secured by corruption and bribery; and at the head of five hundred men he took possession of the castle of Perote, and proclaimed Guerrero President. During the last day of November and the first three days of December, 1828, a sanguinary conflict took place in the Mexican capital between the government guard and a large body of insurgents, which ended in the flight of Pedraza, the President-elect, who, rather than involve his country in civil war on his own account, advised his partisans to submit to an unconstitutional President, and left the country. Thus revolutionary force was triumphant over the constitution and laws of the Mexican Republic.

When the Mexican Congress met, that body declared General Guerrero, the defeated candidate of the *Yorkinos*, President of Mexico, he having, next to General Pedraza, the highest number of votes. In 1829 a Spanish army of four thousand men landed at Tampico for the invasion of the Mexican Republic; but, after a four months' occupation, the invading army surrendered to Santa Anna, on the 10th of September, 1829.

As President Guerrero refused to relinquish the dictatorial powers which had been conferred upon him for the purpose of meeting the Spanish invasion, General Bustamante, the Vice President, headed a revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of Guerrero and the assumption of the Presidency by Bustamante. Guerrero afterward attempted to recover his authority; but he was made a prisoner, and was shot as a traitor to the established government of the Mexican Republic.

In 1832 another revolution occurred in Mexico, headed by Santa Anna, who had declared against the arbitrary encroachments of President Bustamante. After a short contest, the revolution ended in the downfall of Bustamante, who retired to France; whereupon the exiled Pedraza, who had been constitutionally elected in 1828, was recalled to serve out the remaining three months of his unexpired Presidential term.

Early in 1833 Santa Anna himself was raised to the Presidency of Mexico, with Gomez Farias as Vice President. In less than a fortnight after Santa Anna had entered upon the duties of his office, an insurrection broke out within twenty miles of the Mexican capital, supposed to have been instigated by the President himself, as the avowed object of the insurgents was to make Santa Anna Dictator; but he took the command of a large force against the insurgents, whom he completely defeated. Not long afterward Santa Anna left the executive authority in the hands of the Vice President, Gomez Farias, and retired to his estate, to wait for a more favorable occasion to strike a blow for dictatorial power.

Early in 1834 Santa Anna, placing him-

self at the head of the military chiefs and the army, dissolved the Congress and summoned another; and taking into his own hands all the powers of government, he trampled under foot the Constitution which he had sworn to defend. The Mexican States were more or less convulsed by the these arbitrary proceedings; but the Centralist party, headed by Santa Anna, after much opposition, succeeded in abolishing the Federal Constitution of 1824, and established a "Strong Central Republic." The State Legislatures were declared to be abolished, and the States were converted into departments and placed under the charge of military commanders, who were to be responsible to the chief authorities of the Mexican nation. The supreme power was to be centralized in the hands of a single individual whose will was law. At the head of this new government, republican only in name, was Santa Anna as President. Gomez Farias, who, at the head of the Federalist party, supported the Constitution of 1824, was thrown into prison; and General Barragan, a leading Centralist, was made Vice President. Several of the Mexican States rose in arms to uphold the Federal Constitution; but all, with the exception of Texas, were speedily reduced by the arms of Santa Anna.

The arbitrary and usurping conduct of Santa Anna led to a rebellion of the province of Texas, which was inhabited almost exclusively by emigrants from the United States. These emigrants refused to submit to Santa Anna's military rule, and began a rebellion for the purpose of achieving their independence of Mexican authority. The Mexican troops who invaded Texas were repulsed by the Texans at Gonzales on the 2d of October, 1835. Before the end of the year 1835 the Texans captured the strong fortresses of Goliad and the Alamo. The following year, 1836, Santa Anna invaded Texas with eight thousand Mexican troops. For two weeks four thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna had vainly besieged the Alamo, when, at length, on the 6th of March, 1836, they assaulted the fortress, which they only enter-

ed over the dead bodies of the one hundred and fifty Texans who had defended it.

On the 2d of April, 1836, a convention of delegates assembled at Washington, on the Colorado, declared Texas independent. In the meantime a Mexican force under General Urrea was committing the most shocking atrocities along the coast of Texas, massacring small bodies of Texans after they had surrendered. On the 21st of April, 1836, was fought the celebrated battle of San Jacinto, in which sixteen hundred Mexicans under Santa Anna were defeated by seven hundred and eighty-three Texans commanded by General Samuel Houston, after a fierce struggle of twenty minutes. On the day after the battle Santa Anna was found in the woods by the victorious Texans and made a prisoner. On being brought before General Houston, Santa Anna exclaimed: "You were born to no ordinary destiny; you conquered the Napoleon of the West."

In order to obtain his release, Santa Anna ordered the Mexican army to retire beyond the Rio Grande, and acknowledged the independence of Texas; but the Mexican Congress refused to confirm the agreement which Santa Anna had made with the Texans, and even Santa Anna himself, on his arrival in Mexico, disavowed all treaties which he had made while a prisoner. Although Mexico refused to acknowledge the independence of Texas she did not make another vigorous effort to reconquer her lost province. Texas remained an independent republic for nine years, recognized by France, England and the United States; after which it became a State of the American Union, A. D. 1845.

After Santa Anna's departure from Mexico for the invasion of Texas, the executive authority of the Mexican Republic devolved upon the Vice President, General Barragan; and after the death of the latter, soon afterward, General Bustamente, who had just returned from France, was invested with the functions of the Presidency. Santa Anna, by his failure to subdue the Texans, having lost the confidence and favor of the Mexican people, was obliged to retire to private life,

until another revolution in his unhappy country restored him to power.

A rebellion which broke out in Mexico in 1838 was speedily quelled by Santa Anna, whom President Bustamente had entrusted with the command of the government army; and General Mexia, the leader of the rebellion, was shot after he had surrendered. In November of the same year, 1838, a French fleet appeared before Vera Cruz; and when the Mexican authorities rejected a demand for the reparation of the losses sustained by French subjects during the domestic convulsions in Mexico, the fleet blockaded the harbor of Vera Cruz, and French troops were landed before that city. During the retreat of the invaders from Vera Cruz, Santa Anna had one of his legs taken off by a cannon-ball.

In July, 1840, an insurrection of the Federalists, headed by General Urrea and Gomez Farias, broke out in the city of Mexico; and after a bloody contest of twelve days in the streets of the city between the opposing factions, a universal amnesty was agreed upon. During the same year, 1840, the province of Yucatan seceded from Mexico; but, after a struggle of three years against the Mexican forces, it was again united with Mexico.

In August, 1841, another revolution broke out in Mexico, headed by General Paredes and Santa Anna. The revolutionary forces bombarded the capital; and, after a struggle of one month in the streets of the city, the revolution ended in the downfall and flight of President Bustamente.

In September, 1841, a convention of military officers at Tacubaya provided for the assembling of a Congress to frame a new constitution; but this Congress, which met in June, 1842, was soon dissolved by Santa Anna, who had acquired the office of Provisional President; and in June, 1843, a national junta or council selected by him framed a new constitution, establishing an intricate representative system of government, leaving to the Mexican people but a shadow of power. The Mexican Republic was divided into Departments. The Roman

Catholic religion was to be protected to the exclusion of all others. The executive power was vested in a President to be elected for five years, who was to be assisted by a Council of Government, composed of seventeen members selected by the President, and whose tenure of office was to be perpetual. The legislative power was vested in a Congress consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. An annual income of two hundred dollars was required for the enjoyment of all the rights of citizenship. Every five hundred inhabitants of a Department were to be allowed one elector; twenty of these electors were to choose one member of the electoral college of the Department; and the electoral college was to elect the members of the Chamber of Deputies. One-third of the members of the Senate were to be chosen by the Chamber of Deputies and the President of the Republic, and the remaining two-thirds by the Assemblies of the Departments. Under this complicated representative system, Santa Anna was made President, or, with more propriety, virtual Dictator of Mexico, in 1843.

The almost absolute government of Santa Anna produced a wide-spread secret dissatisfaction throughout the Mexican nation. In October, 1844, Santa Anna retired to his farm on private business; and the National Senate appointed the Minister of War, Canalizo, to perform the executive duties in the absence of the President. In November, 1844, General Paredes, the adherent of Santa Anna in the revolution of 1841, pronounced against the Dictator, and took the field against him. The National Congress siding with Paredes, that body was dissolved and the members were shut up in prison by order of Canalizo, the acting President; but they were soon released by a body of insurgents; and in the capital the revolutionists caused Santa Anna's amputated leg, which had been buried with military honors, to be carried about the streets and torn in pieces. After a short civil war, Santa Anna was made a prisoner by the revolutionists, in January, 1845, while attempting to escape from the country; and, after an imprison-

ment of several months, the National Congress decreed his perpetual banishment from the country.

After the overthrow of Santa Anna, in January, 1845, General Herrera was appointed Provisional President of Mexico; and in August of the same year he was elected President, and on the 16th of September he was sworn into office in the presence of the Mexican Congress. During Herrera's Provisional Presidency, the Republic of Texas was annexed to the United States of America, July 4, 1845; whereupon General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, demanded his passports; and when intelligence of the annexation reached Mexico, President Herrera issued a proclamation calling upon the Mexican people to defend the integrity and unity of their country, which was represented as being seriously threatened by the aggressions of the United States. War between Mexico and the United States broke out in the spring of the following year, 1846.

When President Herrera, convinced of the inability of Mexico to prosecute a successful war against the United States, manifested a desire for a peaceful settlement of the difficulty between the two Republics, General Paredes, who had the command of the army marching northward to drive the United States forces from Texas, took the occasion to arouse the patriotism of his countrymen to prevent the dismemberment of the Mexican Republic, and pronounced against the Administration of Herrera. Upon the approach of Paredes to the capital, the army there declared in favor of the revolution, and Herrera was driven from power and Paredes elevated to the Presidency.

President Paredes had no sooner entered upon the duties of his office than he made the most energetic preparations to carry on the war against the United States. The first bloodshed between the military forces of the United States and Mexico occurred on the 24th of April, 1846, when an American reconnoitering party under Captain Thornton was captured by the Mexicans, on the Texas bank of the Rio Grande. The Americans

under General Taylor defeated the Mexicans under General Arista in the battles of Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, and Resaca de la Palma, May 9; and during the same month the American and Mexican governments formally declared war against each other. On the 18th of May, 1846, the American army under General Taylor captured the Mexican city of Matamoras; and on the 24th of September, 1846, Monterey, after a defense of four days, also surrendered to Taylor.

In the midst of her war with the United States, Mexico was not free from domestic dissensions. While President Paredes was engaged in preparations to prosecute a vigorous war against the United States, his Administration was cut short; for Santa Anna had been recalled by the revolutionary party, and in December, 1846, he was again raised to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic. Immediately after his elevation to power, Santa Anna, notwithstanding his former professions of a desire for the restoration of peace between the two nations, took the field in person against the invading forces of the United States.

Disasters befell the Mexican arms in rapid succession. The Americans conquered New Mexico and Upper or New California; while General Taylor with five thousand Americans defeated twenty-two thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna in the famous battle of Buena Vista, on the 23d of February, 1847. General Scott with an American army of ten thousand men captured Vera Cruz, March 18; defeated thirty thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna in the battles of Cerro Gordo, April 25; San Antonio, Contreras and Churubusco, August 20; Molino del Rey, September 8; and Chapultepec, September 13; and on the 14th of September, 1847, he entered the Mexican capital in triumph, and Santa Anna fled from the country. On the 2d of February, 1848, a treaty of peace was concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, by which Mexico ceded New Mexico and Upper California to the United States.

In the autumn of 1848 General Herrera again became President of Mexico, and re-

mained in office until January, 1851, when he was succeeded by General Arista. In January, 1853, Mexico again became disturbed by a domestic revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of President Arista's Administration by Santa Anna, who had just returned to Mexico.

After the overthrow of Arista, Santa Anna was again made President of Mexico, but adversity had not curbed his ambition; and, soon after his restoration to the Presidency, he was accused of a design to assume imperial power, and the consequence was another revolution in his unhappy country. The leader of this revolution was General Alvarez, "the Panther of the Pacific." After a short civil war Santa Anna was hurled from power, and his public career was ended forever.

After the overthrow of Santa Anna in 1855, General Alvarez, his antagonist, was invested with the office of President; but Alvarez was soon succeeded by General Comonfort. On the 11th of March, 1857, a new constitution was promulgated by the Mexican Congress; but President Comonfort, supported by the army, violently opposed this constitution, because it greatly restricted the Presidential power; and, in January, 1858, Mexico again became a prey to the horrors of revolution and civil war.

In 1858 President Comonfort resigned; whereupon General Zuloaga made himself President in utter disregard of the constitutional rights of Benito Juarez, who, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, was the legitimate successor of Comonfort. Civil war continued to distract the unhappy country; and Juarez being defeated retired from the country, but he afterward returned and asserted his constitutional rights to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic.

The civil war in Mexico, between the Liberals, headed by Benito Juarez, and the Conservatives, headed by Comonfort, Miramon, Marquez, Almonte and others, continued throughout 1860. Juarez finally triumphed over his enemies, and secured possession of the office of President, to which he had a legitimate right; but the de-

feat of his unprincipled antagonists did not restore peace to his distracted country.

During the civil war between the Liberals and the Conservatives, both parties seized on the property of foreigners in Mexico; and the Mexican Congress passed an act suspending for two years the payment of certain foreign obligations of debt. In consequence of this action of the Mexican Congress, the governments of England, France and Spain concluded, at London, a Triple Alliance, with the view of forcing Mexico to fulfill her foreign obligations; and, in December, 1861, a combined English, French and Spanish expedition arrived at Vera Cruz. The allied troops occupied Vera Cruz without resistance, that city having been previously evacuated by the Mexican forces. The troops of the expedition suffered severely from the excessive heat of the climate; and negotiations were soon opened for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and the invading army, with the concurrence of the Mexican authorities, occupied more salubrious and healthful quarters in Cordova, Orizaba and Tehuacan, with the understanding that if hostilities should be renewed the allied expeditionary troops should first retire to the positions which they had occupied before the commencement of negotiations.

At a meeting of the representatives of the three allied nations in Mexico, just previous to the opening of the peace negotiations, the French ambassador to Mexico presented the enormous Jecker claim. This surprised the English ambassador and General Prim, the Spanish commander; and the presentation of this claim, with other disclosures made to them, leading to the belief that the Emperor Napoleon III. intended to interfere in the domestic affairs of the Mexican nation, caused the British ambassador and the Spanish commander, on the 9th of April, 1862, to declare the Convention of London transgressed, and to withdraw the English and Spanish troops from Mexico; from which time the invasion and military occupation of Mexico was continued by the French alone.

After the withdrawal of the English and Spanish troops hostilities were renewed by the French and the Mexicans; and the French did not return to their original positions as agreed upon with the Mexican authorities, but retained possession of Orizaba. On the 24th of February, 1863, the French marched from Orizaba to Puebla, to which they laid siege on the 18th of March. Finally, on the 18th of May, 1863, after a vigorous siege and a heroic defense of two months, during which the garrison repulsed many of the assaults of the besiegers, Puebla and its garrison of seventeen thousand men under General Ortega were surrendered to the French.

On the 10th of June, 1863, the French under General Forey entered the city of Mexico, after it had been evacuated by the Republican forces under President Juarez, who retired to San Luis Potosi, afterward to Monterey, and still later to Chihuahua. Soon after the capture of the Mexican capital by the French, General Forey established a junta of thirty-five Mexicans, which junta selected an *Assembly of Notables*, which assembly, by a vote of two hundred and thirty-one to nineteen, declared that the future government of Mexico should be a limited hereditary monarchy with a Roman Catholic prince for sovereign to bear the title of Emperor, and the crown to be offered first to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, of the Imperial House of Hapsburg.

The French were now firmly established in the heart of Mexico, but the Juarists were still dominant in the southern and western portions of the country; and the contest between the Juarists and the Imperialists continued with various success until the early part of 1864, when the Archduke Maximilian of Austria arrived in the Mexican capital and was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico. Maximilian had been placed on the Mexican throne through the instrumentality of the Emperor Napoleon III. of France; and his throne was upheld by the French expeditionary troops and their Austrian auxiliaries, and by the Mexican Im-

perialists; but the Juarists, or Mexican Republicans, kept the field in defense of their free institutions, and waged a sanguinary guerrilla warfare against their foreign and domestic foes, having with them the sympathy of the friends of republican government everywhere. The war was carried on with great barbarity by both parties, the shooting of prisoners being of frequent occurrence.

The year 1864 was an eventful one in the history of Mexico. The French captured the city of Matamoras, and the whole Mexican army under General Cortina was forced to surrender as prisoners of war. This misfortune to the Liberal cause, together with disasters to the arms of the Juarists in other quarters, seemed to leave the cause of the Mexican Republic hopeless; and Maximilian's Empire appeared to be on a fair way to become secure.

With the downfall of the Great Rebellion in the United States, the vitality of Maximilian's Empire decayed; and President Juarez, who had been in the meantime driven into the extreme north-eastern limits of Mexico, gathered new strength, and by the autumn of 1865 he had recovered a large amount of territory from the Mexican Imperialists and their French and Austrian allies. In November, 1865, the Imperialists evacuated Chihuahua, which was soon taken possession of by the Juarists.

The progress of events in Mexico was watched with interest by the government and people of the United States; as the conduct of the Emperor of the French in attempting the establishment of a Latin Empire on the American continent was in defiance of the Monroe Doctrine, proclaimed by the President of the United States at the time of the emancipation of Spanish America from the yoke of Spain. The United States government, engaged in a gigantic struggle against domestic foes for its own preservation, was not in a position to oppose the unprincipled schemes of the French Emperor from the beginning; but after having crushed the Great Rebellion against its own authority, the United

States government resolved upon the enforcement of the Monroe Doctrine, and demanded of the Emperor Napoleon III. the withdrawal of the French expeditionary forces from Mexican territory. After some negotiation Napoleon III. agreed to abandon the cause of his dupe, Maximilian; and the French troops, about twenty-six thousand in number, were gradually withdrawn from Mexican soil. Early in 1867 Marshal Bazaine, with the last French contingent, evacuated Mexico; thus leaving Maximilian and the Mexican Imperialists alone to contend against the Juarists.

After the departure of the French forces from Mexico, Maximilian's Empire rapidly tottered to its fall. Vera Cruz, Puebla and the capital were besieged by the Liberals; and the Imperialists were gradually hemmed in at Queretaro, which city the Republican forces entered on the 15th of May, 1867, making prisoners of Maximilian, his staff and the small remnant of his army. On the 19th of June, 1867, Maximilian was shot at Queretaro by the triumphant Juarists. The two Mexican Imperial generals, Miramon and Mejia, were also shot. On the 15th of July, 1867, President Juarez returned to the capital amid popular rejoicings, and issued a memorable and eloquent address to his countrymen.

On the 6th of October, 1867, Benito Juarez was reëlected President of Mexico over the opposing candidate, General Porfirio Diaz; and in December of the same year the Mexican Congress was again assembled for the first time in three years. After Mexico's triumph over her enemies the nation rapidly recuperated under the wise Administration of Juarez, but this prosperity of the Republic was continually disturbed by revolutionary movements of more or less importance. A strong combination was formed against Juarez in May, 1868, when Rivero pronounced against the President; but the revolutionists frittered away their strength, and the movement failed.

In the spring of 1871 another Presidential election took place in Mexico. There were three rival candidates in the field—President

Benito Juarez, General Porfirio Diaz and Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada. Bribery, corruption and all sorts of frauds were resorted to by each party to secure the election of its favorite candidate; but, as none of the three candidates had received a majority of votes, the duty of choosing a President devolved upon the National Congress, which reëlected President Juarez, who was installed on the 1st of October, 1871. On that day a sanguinary insurrection burst forth in the capital; but the revolt was quelled by General Rocha, who attacked and captured the citadel after a severe conflict; and about two hundred and fifty insurgents were shot after their surrender. The partisans of the unsuccessful candidates throughout the country rose in arms and involved the Republic in the horrors of another civil war. Military chiefs in various States pronounced against Juarez, and took the field at the head of revolutionary bands; and many of the Mexican States pronounced in favor of the revolution. The National Congress granted dictatorial powers to Juarez to enable him to quell the rebellion. In December, 1871, the city of Oaxaca was taken by the government forces under General Rocha, after a stubborn resistance on the part of the insurgents. The city of Zacatecas was reduced by the rebels under General Guerra, on the 13th of January, 1872. A battle was fought at San Luis Potosi, and Matamoras was captured by the revolutionists. The revolutionary General Trevino defeated the Juarist General Cevalles at Monterey.

On the 18th of June, 1872, President Juarez died of apoplexy; and Lerdo de Tejada, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, became President of the Mexican Republic. From the time of the death of Juarez the rebellion declined; the revolutionary chiefs gradually laid down their arms; and in a few months the whole country was quiet, and Mexico was once more relieved from anarchy and restored to peace. In the autumn of 1872 Lerdo de Tejada was almost unanimously elected President, and on December 16th he entered upon his regular term.

Late in January, 1876, a revolutionary movement against President Lerdo de Tejada broke out in the northern and central States of Mexico. The leader of the rebellion was General Porfirio Diaz. General Herrera pronounced for the revolution, and surprised the authorities at Parras. There was severe fighting at Oaxaca, in March, 1876. Jalapa was captured by the revolutionists on March 12th, and Vera Cruz was declared in a state of siege on the 13th. On the 2d of April, 1876, the revolutionists under Diaz captured Matamoras, the government troops making little resistance. New Laredo was captured by the revolutionists, April 11th. General Alatorre was defeated by the rebels in an attempt to retake Oaxaca. The State of Chiapas was declared in a state of siege. The Mexican Congress, before adjourning, granted the President extraordinary powers to meet the rebellion. Escobedo, Alatorre and other generals were operating vigorously against the insurgents. General Porfirio Diaz issued a manifesto assigning his reasons for opposing President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada. General Escobedo with three thousand government troops, and Generals Guerra and Quirago with two thousand men, advanced on Matamoras, of which they took possession on the 10th of May; the revolutionists under General Gonzales retiring.

The rebellion was now rapidly waning, the insurgents having met with reverses everywhere. General Alatorre gained a great victory on May 2d, at Oaxaca, over the revolutionists, who lost four thousand men in killed and wounded, and many being taken prisoners. The government army lost six hundred men in killed and wounded. The government troops also gained a victory in Tlaxco on the 28th of May. The rebels under Generals Figuerora, Cortina and Martinez were completely defeated at Queretaro, on May 31st, with a loss of five hundred men. The revolutionary army under Generals Rivas and Palacio was surprised and defeated by Colonel Adolfo Valle in the interior of Mexico. On July 15th General Alatorre defeated and captured the revolutionary General Hernandez with six hundred of

his troops near Orizaba. The government troops reoccupied Jalapa. The revolutionary General Trevino was captured in the North of Mexico. In the beginning of August a formidable revolt broke out in the interior of Mexico. The insurgents defeated sixteen thousand government troops. The revolutionary General Cortina besieged Matamoras in September, 1876.

In the Presidential election in Mexico in July, 1876, there were five candidates in the field—President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, Chief Justice Iglesias and General Mejia by the government party; and Generals Porfirio Diaz and Gomez Palacio by the revolutionary party. Lerdo de Tejada was reelected by an overwhelming majority. The opposition declared the election illegal on account of prevailing lawlessness in many parts of the country, but the Mexican Congress sustained the election as valid; whereupon Chief Justice Iglesias pronounced against Lerdo de Tejada, and declared himself Provisional President, establishing himself at Leon, in the State of Guanajuato. On the 16th of November, 1876, General Porfirio Diaz annihilated the government army under Generals Alatorre and Gonzales, near Huamantla, about one hundred miles from the city of Mexico. Lerdo de Tejada fled from the capital on November 21, 1876, with his Cabinet, accompanied by about one thousand men, the greater part of whom afterward deserted. Diaz entered the capital amid the greatest demonstrations. Puebla, Vera Cruz and other cities declared for Diaz, who proclaimed himself Provisional President, November 30, 1876. The Presidential succession was now disputed between Diaz and Iglesias; but the followers of Iglesias deserted to Diaz, who soon had fifty thousand men under arms. Both Lerdo de Tejada and Iglesias escaped to the United States. In February, 1877, under an order from Diaz, a new election was held in Mexico, and Diaz was elected President by an overwhelming majority.

The Presidential election in Mexico in July, 1880, resulted in the choice of General Gonzales by a large majority. Revolution-

ary outbreaks in consequence of the election of Gonzales were easily suppressed by the Mexican government, and the Mexican Congress declared General Gonzales elected President of the Mexican Republic. He was inaugurated early in December, 1880, being the first Mexican President under the constitution of 1857 who has peacefully succeeded to the Presidency. All his predecessors

except President Diaz were violently deposed.

In July, 1884, General Porfirio Diaz was again elected President of Mexico; and he was inaugurated in December of that year. In 1887 the Mexican constitution was so amended as to make the President eligible to reëlection; and in July, 1888, Diaz was re-elected for another term, being inaugurated in December of the same year.

SECTION VII.—CHINA AND JAPAN.

CHINA.



KIA-KING, who became Emperor of China in 1796, was a cruel and lustful tyrant, whose oppressions at length caused a rebellion of his subjects, which he was unable to suppress. During his reign the Bible was translated into the Chinese language by Mr. Morrison, an English Protestant missionary, A. D. 1807. Mr. Morrison and Mr. Milne, another English missionary, founded the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca. Like his predecessors, Kia-king pursued the traditional Chinese policy in guarding against the admission of foreigners into the Celestial Empire.

Upon Kia-king's death, in 1820, his second son, **TAOU-KWANG**, ascended the Chinese throne. Taou-kwang was chosen because he had saved his father's life during the insurrection of 1813. He is the first Chinese sovereign whose name is connected with English and American history. Soon after his accession the Tartar tribes in the remote western dependency of Little Bucharía revolted, and were only subdued after the most shocking barbarities had been committed.

Soon afterward a more formidable rebellion of the mountain tribe of the Meaou-tse broke out, and was only suppressed by the government after a struggle of six years, mainly by the bribery of the revolted chiefs. An insurrection of the Tartars of Mongolia occurred in 1826.

The commercial intercourse between China and England was entirely carried on by the English East India Company until the charter of that powerful corporation expired in 1883, when the British government sent Lord Napier to superintend the English trade with China. As Lord Napier was refused permission to communicate with the Chinese viceroy at Canton on terms of equality, he attempted to force his way to Canton; but after a spirited engagement at the Bogue forts, September 11, 1834, he withdrew to Macao, where he died a month afterward. Thereafter for several years the trade between the Chinese and the British merchants was carried on without the superintendence of the British officials. One of the principal articles of this traffic was opium, of which large quantities were sold annually in China by British merchants.

The Chinese government at first tolerated this traffic, but at length became alarmed by the terrible evils which the use of opium was producing among the Chinese people, and sought to put an end to so injurious a traffic. In the fall of 1837 Captain Elliott, the English agent at Canton, was ordered by the Chinese government to send away the opium ships and to discontinue the harmful traffic. This demand was disregarded, and the trade continued. Early in 1839 the Chinese viceroy Lin, by the orders of the imperial government at Peking, seized and destroyed all the opium then at Canton, valued at ten million dollars. Thereupon

an illicit traffic in opium sprang up, and was resented by the Chinese government, which declared all commercial intercourse with Great Britain at an end, thus bringing on the "Opium War," which has already been alluded to in a preceding section of this volume.

The capture of Canton in 1841 led to a suspension of hostilities, and that city was ransomed by the Chinese by the payment of six million dollars; but the war was renewed, and the great cities of Amoy, Ningpo and Chin-kiang-foo were taken by the British. By the treaty of Nankin,

These treaties with the Western nations broke down the barriers of Chinese exclusiveness, and opened a new era in the history of the Celestial Empire by bringing China into more intimate commercial relations with Christendom.

The Emperor Taou-kwang died February 24, 1850, and was succeeded by his son HIEN-FUNG. During the same year a formidable rebellion headed by Tae-ping Wang broke out in the southern provinces of China. The rebels were at first successful, and overran a considerable portion of Southern China. This rebellion continued four-



CANTON.

August 29, 1842, China was required to pay a war indemnity of twenty-one million dollars; to cede the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain; to open five of her principal ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Choo-foo—to the commerce of the world, and to allow European consuls to have official residences therein.

In 1842 Caleb Cushing arrived in China as an envoy from the United States government; and two years later he negotiated a treaty between China and the United States, July 3, 1844. A treaty between China and France was signed October 23, 1844.

teen years. In 1857 the Mohammedans of Yunnan, the most south-western province of China, rose in rebellion, and were for some time successful. This revolt lasted sixteen years.

The Chinese government never intended to observe its treaties with the Christian powers in good faith, and its treatment of the foreigners within its dominions was always marked by deceit and ill-concealed hostility. This feeling caused constant disputes between the Chinese authorities and the foreign consuls and merchants. Matters were brought to a crisis in October, 1856, by the

seizure of the *Arrow*, a British vessel built in China, by the Chinese officials. This act led to a desultory war of several years between China and Great Britain, in which the Chinese were generally successful. France, having suffered the same wrongs at the hands of the Chinese, made common cause with England. These two European powers determined to compel China to a settlement, and sent a combined expedition against China in 1857. The Anglo-French fleet bombarded Canton, December 28, 1857; and the next day the English and French land forces, numbering six thousand men, entered the city. The Chinese viceroy, Yeh, was taken prisoner; but the Chinese government sought to offset this reverse by degrading Yeh and appointing his successor.

Russia and the United States now united with England and France in seeking to compel China to negotiate more liberal treaties with the Western powers. As the action of the Chinese government was unsatisfactory, the allied forces attacked and captured the forts at the mouth of the Peiho, and advanced to Tien-tsin, fifty miles above the mouth of that river. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded, and concluded treaties with Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, stipulating for the residence of foreign ambassadors at Peking; for the opening of several additional ports to foreign commerce; for the free navigation of the river Yangtse-kiang; and for the settlement of the transit-dues question. China paid to Great Britain an indemnity of five and a half million dollars, and a smaller sum to France.

As usual, China sought to evade this treaty, and endeavored to prevent the foreign ambassadors from reaching Peking by prescribing a most unusual route for them and imposing various vexatious delays upon them. Thereupon the British ambassador ordered the British fleet under Admiral Hope to force the passage of the Peiho river. That naval commander attempted to execute the orders of the ambassador, but was repulsed with heavy loss by the forts at the mouth of the river.

The British and French ambassadors then retired to Shanghai to await instructions from their respective governments. The United States minister, Mr. Ward, decided to accept the Chinese conditions; and, after undergoing many inconveniences and indignities, he at length arrived at Peking; but, as he was granted an interview with the Chinese Emperor only on conditions degrading to himself and his country, he returned in disgust to Shanghai, where he joined the English and French ambassadors.

England and France resented China's bad faith by renewing the war with the Celestial Empire, and a combined English and French expedition proceeded against Peking. The allies took the Peiho forts August 21, 1860, and occupied Tien-tsin three days later. The Chinese authorities sought to check the advance of the allies by negotiation; but the allies, understanding the Chinese design, pushed on to the Chinese capital. The allies reached Peking on October 6, 1860, plundered and burned the Emperor's summer palace, and obtained possession of one of the gates of the city on October 13, 1860. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded, and renewed and ratified its treaties with England and France. The allies then retired from Peking, and China has ever since observed her treaties with the Western powers in good faith. In 1859 China ceded a large part of the valley of the Amoor river and the entire island of Saghalien to Russia.

The Emperor Hien-fung died in 1862, and was succeeded by his son YUNG-CHI. After great bloodshed, the gigantic rebellion of Tae-ping Wang was finally suppressed in 1864, and the imperial authority was re-established in the revolted districts of Southern China. The Mohammedan rebellion in the south-western province of Yunnan was quelled in 1873, in the spring of which year the Chinese imperial forces captured the city of Tali-foo, the capital of the province of Yunnan, after a vigorous siege. Upon entering the conquered city, the imperial army massacred thirty thousand of their captives. The Mohammedan Sultan, Sulei-

man, poisoned himself rather than be taken prisoner by his victorious enemies.

In 1862 a second Mohammedan rebellion broke out in the north-western provinces of China, but it was crushed in 1873. In 1864 the provinces of Soongaria and Kashgar achieved their independence under the able and powerful Yakoob Khan, who maintained an independent government until his death in 1877, and was one of the greatest chieftains of Central Asia in modern times.

In 1868 a Chinese embassy headed by Anson Burlingame, formerly United States minister to China, visited the United States and the various European powers, and entered into new treaties with all those powers. Mr. Burlingame died at St. Petersburg in 1869, during his mission to Russia as the head of this Chinese embassy.

In 1870 the Chinese attacked the French at Tien-tsin, and massacred the consul, the vice-consul, the interpreter of the French legation at Peking and his wife, a Catholic priest, nine Sisters of Charity, and some others. The French consulate, the cathedral and the missionary hospital were destroyed by the Chinese mob. The Chinese government severely punished the outrage and made an apology to France.

In 1871 China became involved in a dispute with Russia, and was obliged to cede to that European power the district of Kulja and the entire basin of the Ili, a region comprising about six hundred thousand square miles and containing about two million inhabitants.

The Emperor Yung-chi, who had only become of age in 1873, died in 1875, and was succeeded by his son KWANG-LIU, who was a mere child. The first railway in China—from Shanghai to Woosung, a distance of eleven miles—was opened June 30, 1876. This road was built by an English company, and was at first regarded with hostility by the Chinese, so that it seemed probable at one time that the Chinese government would cause the tracks to be torn up; but the vigorous protestations of the British ambassador obliged China to remain faithful to her obligations and to respect the

rights of the owners of the road. The hostility of the Chinese changed to delight as soon as the trains commenced running, and they loudly praised this new means of locomotion.

For twelve years the Chinese had been engaged in a struggle for the recovery of Kashgar, which had gained its independence under Yakoob Khan, in 1864; but they were only able to recover their lost province after the death of Yakoob Khan, in 1877.

The French invasion and conquest of Tonquin during France's war with Anam in 1883 brought on a war between France and China in 1884, as the Chinese government claimed a suzerainty over Tonquin. The French navy bombarded Foo Choo-foo in August, 1884, and the French armies gained some victories over the Chinese forces in Tonquin; but the great Chinese victory at Langson, in the spring of 1885, led to a treaty of peace by which France was obliged to relinquish her claim for indemnity from China, while China recognized France's suzerainty over Tonquin.

JAPAN.

The early history of Japan is purely fabulous. The islands of Yezo and Hondo were occupied by an indigenous savage race, called Ainōs. The islands of Shikoku and Kiushiu were inhabited by mixed races from various portions of Southern Asia. The Japanese legends state that when the divine ancestors of the Japanese imperial family came to the southern islands they found those islands thus peopled. These and their descendants taught the people the simple arts of civilization, and conquered the savage inhabitants of the two great northern islands.

The authentic history of Japan begins with JIMMU TENNO, the first *Mikado*, or Emperor, about B. C. 660. This great personage established his power over the southern islands about that time and subdued the Ainōs of the northern islands, whereupon he ascended the throne of Japan. He was a good and wise ruler, as well as a great warrior. He established his capital near Kioto,

and gave his subjects a code of laws and a strong, settled government. He exerted himself earnestly to promote the civilization of his dominions, and was highly esteemed by his subjects. His descendants occupied the Japanese throne for many centuries, bearing the title of Mikado and claiming to reign by divine right, as their illustrious ancestor was considered the fifth in descent from the sun goddess. The anniversary of Jimmu Tenno's accession to the Japanese throne is still celebrated in Japan as a national holiday.

Under Jimmu Tenno's descendants Japan steadily advanced in civilization and prosperity. We are told that twelve Mikados reached the age of a hundred years. One of them is said to have reigned one hundred and one years. The reigns of the first seventeen are said to have averaged over sixty-one years. From the seventeenth to the thirty-first the average reign is little over twelve years.

In B. C. 97 began the reign of the tenth Mikado, *SIJUN THE CIVILIZER*, who labored to promote the prosperity of his subjects, improved the Japanese system of irrigation, and founded a new military system. The twelfth Mikado was *KEIKO*, whose son *Yamato-Daké* extended the Empire by conquering the Kuanto, and was a great legendary hero. In A. D. 203 the Empress-Regent *JINGU-KOGO* subdued Korea. Her son and successor *OJIN* was a great warrior. He was deified after his death, and is now worshipped as the Japanese god of war.

After the Japanese conquest of Korea there was a large Korean migration to Japan, and the Korean immigrants introduced Buddhism into the Empire. This faith spread silently among the Japanese; and in A. D. 552 a company of doctors, diviners, astronomers and mathematicians came from Korea to live at the Japanese court, bringing a band of Buddhist missionaries with them. This Korean immigration introduced the civilization of continental Asia into Japan, and brought with it art, science, letters, literature and the Buddhist religion, all of which had hitherto been unknown in the Japanese

Empire; thus changing the character and history of Japan forever.

The Mikado and his subjects endeavored to suppress Buddhism; but that religion grew in spite of all opposition, and in A. D. 593 the Empress *SUIKO* granted perfect toleration, since which time Buddhism has grown with unceasing rapidity. At present it is one of the national religions of Japan, the other being Shintoism. The Empress *Suiko* was one of the great sovereigns of Japan. She caused written codes of laws to be framed, constituted a new and rigid system of official grades, caused the Empire to be resurveyed, and fixed the boundaries of its provinces more accurately.

For the next five centuries the Mikado's power declined, and Japan was distracted by the contentions of rival families. The Mikado became a mere puppet of the great nobles, who increased their own power. The Mikado was allowed one wife and twelve concubines, so as to insure offspring; and the succession depended upon the Mikado's arbitrary will. This was the cause of the centuries of civil war that followed. To end this anarchy and strife, the Mikado finally established the office of *Shogun*, and assigned to him the civil power of the realm.

Yoritomo, the first Shogun, was a great Japanese hero, and was the son of a *Minamoto* noble by a peasant family. He quickly established his power over the whole Empire, and soon reduced all the rebellious nobles to submission. He usurped all the powers of the government, leaving to the Mikado his hereditary rank, dignity and character, A. D. 1184. Thenceforth until the Japanese revolution of 1868 the Shogun was the real ruler of Japan, while the Mikado was the true source of power. The office of Shogun was made hereditary in *Yoritomo's* family, but eventually passed to other families. *Yoritomo* established his capital at *Kamakura*, about thirty-five miles from *Yedo*, and set up a magnificent court. *Kioto* remained the Mikado's capital. *Yoritomo* died A. D. 1199, after a reign of fifteen years.

The *Hojo* family then held the Shogunate

until 1333, and maintained order and tranquillity in Japan for over a century. They encouraged literature, science and art. During their rule the resources of Japan were developed, and some branches of useful handicraft and the fine arts attained a perfection in that country never since surpassed. Uneki, the celebrated image carver, sculptor and architect, flourished during that period; as did also the lacquer artists, who are the "old masters" in that branch of art. The military spirit of the Japanese people was kept alive, and tactics were improved, while the civil administration was simplified. Splendid temples were erected, and the glory and prestige of the Empire were maintained at a high state.

In 1274 Kublai Khan, the great Mongol conqueror of China, sent an expedition against Japan; but these Tartar invaders were routed. In 1281 Kublai Khan sent a still more formidable fleet and army against Japan, but this armament was destroyed by a storm and by the desperate valor of the Japanese. Since then no foreign power has attempted to invade Japan.

In 1333 the Mikado cast off the Shogun's rule and asserted his power; but in 1336 he was again forced to submit to his great vassal, and the dual government was restored. From 1336 to 1573 Japan was governed by thirteen Shoguns of the Ashikaga family. Nobunaga, who became Shogun in 1558, attempted to reduce the whole Empire to submission to him, but was finally killed by an officer whom he had offended. He persecuted the Buddhists, burned their temples and monasteries, and caused thousands of them to be massacred. To counteract their influence, he showed great favor to the Jesuits, who were then in the midst of their labors in Japan. After his death Japan was torn by dissensions for a year until Hidéyoshi defeated his rivals, made himself Shogun, and forced the Mikado to confirm him in his office.

Hidéyoshi was a great warrior and a great statesman, and framed a useful code of laws, called the *Laws of Taiko*. He contemplated the conquest of China, and sent an army of

one hundred and sixty thousand men into Corea in 1592. The Coreans at once submitted; but Hidéyoshi's death, September 15, 1598, obliged the expedition to return to Japan immediately.

After a struggle of a few years, the great Tokugawa Iyeyasu deprived Hidéyoshi's infant son of the Shogunate and made himself Shogun, A. D. 1603. His family held the Shogunate until 1867, and during the period of their rule Japan was blessed with profound peace. Yedo had hitherto been a small town; but Iyeyasu made it his capital, and in a few years it became a populous and magnificent city. He perfected the system of dual government; and, although he did not dare to depose the Mikado, and professed to rule in his name and for his benefit, he and his successors firmly wielded the real power of the Empire. Under Iyeyasu the feudal system of Japan was brought to perfection, and the great nobles were made directly responsible to the Shogun.

Under Iyeyasu and his successors a perfect tyranny had full sway in Japan. The Chinese classics were to constitute the limit of learning. The Buddhist hierarchy was given the encouragement of government example and patronage to crush the intellect of the Japanese masses. Foreign ideas were interdicted. Edicts ordered the destruction of all boats built upon a foreign model, and forbade the building of vessels of any size or shape superior to that of a junk. Belief in Christianity was punished with death; as was also traveling abroad, or studying foreign languages, or introducing foreign customs. People were required to seal their upper windows and to bow their faces to the earth before the august train of the Shogun. The populace were even required to do obeisance with their faces in the dust before his tea jars and cooking pots. The study of ancient history was forbidden to the lower classes, and discouraged among the higher, because it would expose the origin of the Shogunate. The life-blood of many a master spirit was drained by a rigid censorship; while the preparation of false and garbled histories which extolled the reigning Sho-

gunate, or which glorified the dual system of government as the best and only one for Japan, was encouraged. A large army of spies was kept in the pay of the government. The eight classes of the Japanese people were kept contented and happy. A fertile soil and genial climate gave food in abundance. As there was no commerce, there was no vast wealth to be accumulated. The Samurai alone possessed all learning and education, and were also given the sword and privilege. The daimios were kept poor, and no two of them were permitted to meet in private or to visit each other without spies.

In the meantime Christianity had been introduced into Japan. Japan was first made known to Europeans in the thirteenth century by Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, during his residence in China. This knowledge was subsequently extended by Portuguese and Dutch traders, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Portuguese first visited the country in 1542. Jesuit missionaries soon followed; and in 1549 St. Francis Xavier, "the Apostle of the Indies," came to Japan. These Jesuit missionaries were at first kindly treated, and made many converts to Christianity, even among the most powerful nobles.

In 1582 these Japanese Christians sent an embassy to the Pope to assure him of their submission to the Romish Church. In 1598 the Dutch opened commercial intercourse with Japan, and were granted the port of Hirado in 1609, where they built a factory or trading post. They were granted important privileges. We have seen that Nobunaga favored the Portuguese and the Jesuits for the purpose of destroying Buddhism. Hidéyoshi persecuted the native Christians because they opposed his tyranny, and finally banished the Portuguese and the Jesuit missionaries on account of their insolent defiance of his government.

This edict was renewed in 1596, and the next year twenty-three priests were massacred at Nagasaki in one day. The native Christians espoused the cause of the Jesuit missionaries; whereupon they were terribly

persecuted, their churches and schools being destroyed, while it was declared treason to hold to or teach Christianity. The Portuguese were deprived of their privilege of free access to the Empire, and were confined to the island of Deshima at Nagasaki.

In 1622 a terrible massacre of the Christians occurred at Nagasaki, many being sacrificed with horrible tortures. Driven to despair, the surviving native Christians plotted to overthrow the government. This plot was discovered in 1637, whereupon the persecution was renewed with increased severity. The Portuguese were forever banished from Japan, and all natives and Japanese ships were forbidden to leave the country under severe penalties.

After the Portuguese had been thus expelled from Japan, their trade and privileges were in 1639 bestowed upon the Dutch, who, being Protestants, were not hated as were the Jesuits and their disciples. In 1640 the native Christians openly rebelled, but were finally reduced to submission; and thirty-one thousand of them were massacred at the capture of their last stronghold. In 1641 the Dutch were forced to abandon their factory at Hirado and to remove to the island of Deshima, whence they were permitted to trade with the Empire under certain rigid conditions; and for the next two centuries they enjoyed a monopoly of the trade with Japan.

After Christianity had thus been stamped out in Japan, the Japanese devoted themselves to their old religions. The Shoguns favored Buddhism, while the Mikados supported Shintoism. Thus for two centuries Japan rigidly excluded herself from the rest of the world.

In the meantime a strong reaction had been growing up in Japan against the Shogun's rule. The educated classes of Japan had never ceased to consider the Mikado the only legitimate sovereign of Japan. These persons began to draw nearer to the Mikado as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century, and discussed among themselves measures for restoring the Mikado to his lawful position. The second Prince of

Mito originated this movement by gathering many scholars about him and having the *History of Japan* prepared under his guidance.

This prince died in 1700; but his son and successor took up his work, and caused the great history to be completed in 1715. This work immediately became a classic, and was eagerly read by all classes. Its main objects were to show that the Mikado was the rightful sovereign of Japan and that the Shogun was a military usurper.

The *External History of Japan*, the product of twenty years of labor on the part of the great scholar, Rai Sanyo, published in 1827, had the same object in view. The influence of these works was great, and thinking men were convinced that a collision between the partisans of the Mikado and those of the Shogun was inevitable.

Thinking the time propitious, the Prince of Mito resolved to bring on the struggle in 1840; but his efforts were promptly suppressed by the Shogun, and he was taken prisoner and kept in captivity twelve years. After this failure the southern clans prepared secretly for another effort.

The Japanese having treated the wrecked crews of European and American vessels on the Japanese coasts with great harshness, the United States government sent an expedition under Commodore Matthew C. Perry to Japan in 1852, to negotiate a treaty of commerce and friendship with the Empire of Japan. After delivering the President's letter to the Japanese authorities, Commodore Perry sailed for China, but returned to Japan in 1854, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with the Shogun at Kanagawa, March 31, 1854, by which the ports of Shimoda and Hakodadi were opened to foreign commerce and made the places of residence of American consuls.

In September of the same year, 1854, a British squadron under Sir James Stirling entered the harbor of Nagasaki and concluded a treaty with the Shogun, opening the ports of Hakodadi and Nagasaki to foreign commerce. The Russians and the Dutch made similar treaties with the Sho-

gun. Mr. Harris, the United States consul, made a still more liberal treaty with the Shogun, June 17, 1857, by which the harbor of Nagasaki was opened to American commerce. In spite of the opposition of the Japanese, Mr. Harris proceeded to Yedo in 1858, and concluded a third treaty still more favorable to the United States. During the same year Lord Elgin, escorted by a British squadron, reached Yedo and negotiated a treaty with the Shogun by which the ports of Hakodadi, Nagasaki and Kanagawa were opened to British commerce after July 1, 1859. Thenceforth until 1874 Japan concluded treaties of friendship with Russia, Holland, Prussia, Portugal, Spain, France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Greece, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Hawaiian Islands, Peru and China. Commodore Perry's treaty was the beginning of Japan's intercourse with the Western nations—an intercourse which has entirely changed the destiny of that ancient and remote Oriental empire.

The Japanese considered the Shogun's action in negotiating these treaties as another usurpation of the Mikado's power, and his course aroused a strong reaction in favor of the Mikado. The nation resented the Shogun's violation of the traditional policy of non-intercourse with foreigners, and the country resounded with the cry of "Honor the Mikado and expel the barbarian." The Shogun was considered a traitor, and the Mikado's cause was vastly strengthened.

Upon the Shogun's death, in 1858, his able but unscrupulous Prime Minister, Ii, became regent, and, setting aside the legitimate successor, conferred the Shogunate upon the infant Prince of Kii, but kept the real power in his own hands. He suppressed the opposition to his arbitrary act by imprisoning and executing the leaders of the movement against him. His action in sending an embassy to the United States and Europe in 1859 without consulting the Mikado increased the hatred of the Japanese people toward him; and he was assassinated in the streets of Yedo, March 23, 1860.

The Mikado's party now rapidly increased

in numbers; and the Shogun's followers sought to recover their lost ground by trying to persuade the foreigners to close the ports and leave the country, but failed in this effort. About this time the forces of the Prince of Choshin, or Nogato, by the Mikado's order, fired upon the ships of the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland. These powers punished this act by sending a combined squadron to Shimonoseki, and capturing that port after a severe bombardment, A. D. 1864. Japan was obliged to pay an indemnity of three million dollars. This occurrence showed the Japanese the power of the foreigners, and made them more careful in their conduct toward them in the future.

Though the Prince of Choshin had obeyed the Mikado in firing upon the foreign vessels, he had disobeyed the Shogun; and in 1866 the Shogun marched against him to punish him for his disobedience. The Shogun's forces were armed and disciplined in the old Japanese style; while those of the Prince of Choshin were armed with European rifles and artillery, and had been disciplined by Dutch officers. A campaign of three months ended in the Shogun's overwhelming defeat; and he died September 19, 1866, worn out with disease and with mortification at his failure.

His successor, Keiki, was the last Shogun. The Mikado's party grew bolder, and in October, 1867, urged the Mikado to abolish the Shogunate and to resume the government himself. This proposal was so generally sustained by the most powerful princes and nobles of the Empire that Keiki resigned the Shogunate, November 9, 1867.

The Mikado's party seized the palace on January 3, 1868, drove out the nobles, and established a government under which the highest offices were filled by the *kuge* or court nobles of the imperial family, those of the next order by the daimios or courtiers, and those of the third order by men selected by the Samurai. This gave the whole power of the government to the Satsuma, Choshin, Tosa and Hizen clans.

The ex-Shogun was highly displeased

with this arrangement, and appealed to arms to recover his lost power; but he was defeated in a three days' battle, and fled to Yedo in a United States steamer. Seeing the hopelessness of further resistance, he surrendered to the Mikado's forces, announced his determination never again to oppose the Mikado, and retired to private life. The Shogun's submission fully restored the Mikado's authority throughout the Empire as it had existed previous to A. D. 1184, and gave tranquillity to Japan.

Hitherto the Mikado's party had been the most inveterate enemies of the treaties negotiated by the Shogun with the foreign powers. A few men among them had profoundly studied the subject, and had perceived the folly of holding their country isolated from the rest of the world. These men now devoted themselves to promoting the intercourse of Japan with the treaty powers, and found this an easy task, as the leaders of the Mikado's party had now become convinced of the vast superiority of the foreign system of warfare over the native. They likewise feared that the foreign powers would force Japan to observe the treaties negotiated with the Shogun, and were convinced that the Japanese were not able to make a successful resistance. They therefore invited the representatives of the foreign powers to a conference at Kioto.

Many of the Japanese court nobles had never seen a foreigner, and when they saw these foreign representatives at the conference they instantly abandoned their prejudices against them. The treaties with the Western powers were therefore cordially renewed, and the foreign powers recognized the Mikado as the only legal sovereign of Japan. The foundations were thus laid for the cordial relations which have ever since existed between Japan and the nations of Christendom. Foreign ideas and customs have ever since been gradually adopted by the Japanese, who are great imitators.

Since 1868 the character of Japanese civilization has undergone a total change. The government, the army and navy, and the finances, are administered on the European

plan. The European dress is rapidly taking the place of the old Japanese costume, and many Japanese young men destined for the public service of their country are sent to the schools and colleges of Europe and the United States to be educated in the learning and civilization of the Christian world. In all these measures the young Mikado MUTSUHITO, who ascended the Japanese throne in 1867, has taken an active part, and has constantly sought to promote the civilization of his empire and to render its intercourse with the United States and the European powers more intimate.

The changes which occurred in the Japanese government since 1868 have been very rapid. In 1871 the Mikado abolished the titles of *kuge* and *daimio*, or court and imperial noble, and replaced them with that of *kuazoku*, or noble families. This decree deprived the great Japanese nobles of their territorial fiefs, which were reclaimed by the crown, thus destroying the feudal system of Japan at one blow. In the same year the Mikado removed his capital from the old sacred city of Kioto to the great city of Yedo, the name of which was changed to *Tokio*, meaning "Western capital." The Mikado granted to the daimios one-tenth of their former incomes on condition of residing permanently at Tokio.

In December, 1871, Japan sent an embassy to Europe and the United States. This embassy visited each of the Western

nations in succession, and negotiated new treaties of commerce and friendship with them. The embassy returned to Japan in September, 1873.

In 1874 Japan sent an expedition to the island of Formosa to chastise the natives for their outrages upon Japanese sailors wrecked on their shores. This expedition was successful, but involved Japan in a dispute with China, which claimed Formosa as one of her dependencies. War was threatened, but the firmness of the Japanese ambassadors induced China to enter into a treaty with Japan and to make reparation to that power for her losses.

In July, 1875, Japan ceded the island of Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands. In 1876 a long standing quarrel with Corea was settled upon terms favorable to Japan. In the same year Japan took part in the Centennial International Exhibition at Philadelphia, where that Oriental empire gave satisfactory evidence of its success in the new national career upon which it had so recently entered.

In February, 1889, Japan adopted a new constitution, giving the Empire two legislative Chambers and a Ministry. On account of the wonderful and peaceful progress in recent times by which Japan has turned her back upon the past and taken her place among the most enlightened nations of the world, that Oriental nation has been called the "England of the East."

SECTION VIII.—RECENT HISTORY.

BRITISH AFFAIRS.

IN THE summer of 1888, Thibet, a tributary of the Chinese Empire, sent a military force of ten thousand men across the Himalayas into the small Hindoo state of Sikkim, which was claimed as a dependency of Thibet, although it had been tributary to British India for more than half a century. After

twice repulsing the Thibetan invaders and driving them out of Sikkim, a British Indian force of fifteen hundred men, under Colonel Graham, pursued them across the Himalayas into their own country and utterly routed and dispersed them in two engagements, with the loss of one thousand men, September 21 and 24, 1888, after which the British Indian force returned to Sikkim.

A British Indian expedition under Generals McQueen, Channer and Galbraith humbled the Black Mountain tribes, on the north-western frontier of British India, after defeating them in a number of conflicts in October and November, 1888. In December, 1888, Lord Dufferin was succeeded as Viceroy of British India by Lord Lansdowne.

During the whole of the year 1888 the British and Egyptians under General Sir Francis Grenfell were besieged by the Mahdists under Osman Digma at Suakim, but the Dervishes were severely defeated by the British and Egyptians at Handoub, January 17, 1888; at Wady Halfa, July 4, and 22, 1888; at Toski, August 3, 1888; and at Suakim, December 20, 1888.

In November, 1889, the relations between England and Portugal became strained, in consequence of British occupation of certain territory in South-eastern Africa, claimed by Portugal for several centuries. England denied Portugal's claims because the territory had been simply claimed but never occupied, and the attempt of Major Serpa Pinto to drive the British from the disputed territory threatened to bring on trouble. The excitement in Portugal ran high, and mobs in Lisbon threatened the British Minister. The Portuguese government wisely acceded to England's terms, but popular indignation in Portugal was not easily allayed and brought on a Ministerial crisis in that country in September, 1890.

Coercion was again tried in Ireland in the fall of 1889. Mr. Balfour's Irish Land Purchase Bill, a Tithes Bill and a Local Government Bill—all three measures applying to Ireland—occupied the attention of Parliament for many months during 1890 and 1891, without any decisive action thereon. Another famine in Ireland, during the fall of 1890, aroused the British government to undertake measures of relief for the starving peasantry, and Mr. Balfour himself visited the famine-stricken districts.

In the summer of 1890 Great Britain entered into treaties with Germany, Portugal

and France, partitioning the African continent. The Anglo-German agreement defined the boundaries between the British and German possessions in Eastern Africa; while England ceded the little isle of Heligoland, in the North Sea, close to the German coast, to Germany, it having been in England's possession since it was wrested from Denmark in 1814. By the Anglo-Portuguese agreement the limits of the British and Portuguese territories in South-eastern Africa were defined. The Anglo-French agreement was concerning the extent of the British and French territories in Central and Western Africa. England and Italy finally came to terms respecting the lower Red Sea coast of Africa, early in April, 1891. The British South Africa Company was doing much for the development of Southern Africa, while the British East Africa Company was active in carrying commerce and civilization into Eastern Africa. A British protectorate was proclaimed over Zanzibar, November 7, 1890.

In September, 1890, John Dillon and William O'Brien were arrested for their activity in renewing the "Plan of Campaign," and were tried at Tipperary. The trial was disturbed by riots and scenes of violence, while Dillon and O'Brien escaped to the United States, where they remained until early the next year.

In November, 1890, Mr. Parnell lost his political influence by being involved in a private scandal which led to the divorce of Captain O'Shea from his wife. The English Liberals and the bulk of the Irish Home Rulers and the Irish Roman Catholic hierarchy at once demanded Mr. Parnell's withdrawal from the Irish political leadership; but Mr. Parnell obstinately refused, whereupon the Irish Parliamentary party, by a two-thirds vote, deposed him and chose Justin McCarthy for their leader, December 6, 1890, and the Irish Home Rule party was split into two hostile factions, which proceeded at once to measure their strength in the election to fill the Parliamentary vacancy in North Kilkenny. The

leaders of the Anti-Parnellite faction were such able men as Michael Davitt, John Dillon, William O'Brien, Thomas Sexton, Timothy D. Healy and Maurice Healy ; while the prominent leaders who adhered to Mr. Parnell were the Harringtons and the brothers John and William Redmond. The short electoral campaign in North Kilkenny was marked by the most intense factional bitterness, the mass meetings of both factions being disturbed and sometimes broken up by fights and riots, Mr. Davitt on one occasion being battered by the Parnellite mob, and Mr. Parnell's eyes being injured by lime thrown at him by an Anti-Parnellite. The election, which was held December 15, 1890, resulted in the triumph of the Anti-Parnellite candidate, Sir John Pope Hennessy, over his Parnellite opponent by more than one thousand majority.

Early in January, 1890. William O'Brien, who had just returned from America, held conferences with Mr. Parnell at Boulogne, in France, with the view of healing the breach in the Irish Home Rule party, but all efforts at reconciliation failed, and the two opposing factions continued to be arrayed against each other in hostile camps. O'Brien and Dillon returned to Ireland in February, 1891, and served out their three months' sentences in Clonmel and Galway jails.

In the election to fill the Parliamentary vacancy in North Sligo, April 2, 1891, the Anti-Parnellite candidate was also elected by over a thousand majority, after a campaign marked by the same bitterness and violence as that of North Kilkenny. The Parnellites met with a third reverse in the election to fill the vacancy in Carlow, in July, 1891, the Anti-Parnellite candidate being chosen by about two thousand majority. Mr. Parnell's marriage with the divorced wife of Captain O'Shea and his sudden death on the very day of Sir John Pope Hennessy's death, October 7, 1891, did not lead to a reunion of the hostile factions. The Parnellites rejected all overtures from the Anti-Parnellites, whom they

denounced as guilty of the basest ingratitude in vilifying Mr. Parnell and hounding him to his grave. The Anti-Parnellites elected a successor to Mr. Parnell, in Cork, November 7, 1891, one month after the great leader's death ; but in the election to fill the vacancy in Waterford, late in December, 1891, the Parnellite candidate, John E. Redmond, was elected over Michael Davitt, the Anti-Parnellite nominee, after a short campaign characterized by riot and bloodshed, during which Mr. Davitt was mobbed and assaulted. The two factions still bitterly oppose each other. Late in 1892 Mr. Davitt was elected to Parliament from Meath, but his election was set aside by the judges on account of priestly interference and intimidation.

On September 21, 1890, a rising occurred in the small native state of Manipur, in North-eastern British India, the Maharajah's brother seizing the palace and magazine, the Maharajah taking refuge in the British residency and finally abdicating in favor of his brother, September 26, 1890. Fights occurred in which two British officers, Lieutenant Swinton and Major Brown, were killed. Late in March, 1891, a British force of several thousand Ghoorkas was massacred in Manipur by rebel tribesmen ; and Mr. Quinton, commissioner for Assam, and other British officers, were taken prisoners and massacred. British reinforcements rapidly advanced on Manipur. Lieutenant Grant with the 4th Ghoorkas carried by assault the mud fort of Thobal, early in April, 1891 ; and an attack upon Lieutenant Grant's position was repulsed, the Senaputty, or Regent, being killed. After being reinforced, Lieutenant Grant retreated and repulsed an attack on the way, May, 1891. A British expedition occupied Manipur early in May. The Senaputty was taken prisoner by Major Maxwell, May 23, 1891. The Senaputty and other Manipur leaders were tried and convicted of murder in killing British officers, June 13, 1891, and were sentenced to be hanged. The Senaputty and the Tonga general were executed, but

the sentences of the others were commuted to exile for life and their property was confiscated. A collateral relative of the late Senaputty was selected for the throne of Manipur, September 13, 1891. The British also defeated the Lushais in 1891 and 1892.

The British had also been engaged in hostilities in Upper Burmah with the Chins, the Hunzas, the Kachins and the Dacoits. Early in April, 1891, Lieutenant McNabb was ambushed and routed by the Kamkow Chins. The Chin tribes threatened great trouble, and expeditions were sent against them. During 1891, 1892 and 1893 the British routed the Chins, the Hunzas, the Kachins and the Dacoits in numerous conflicts.

In the meantime the British East Africa Company and the British South Africa Company had been doing much for the development of the British territories in the eastern and southern portions of the African continent. The British territories of Zambesia, Metabeland, Mashonaland, Swaziland and other regions were being occupied and settled by the British. In August, 1890, England entered into a convention with the Transvaal Republic about Swaziland. Mashonaland was occupied by the British South Africa Company in September, 1890. The discovery of gold in Mashonaland, in January and February, 1891, accelerated its settlement. The British entered into a treaty with the King of Uganda in March, 1891. In October, 1890, a British squadron from Zanzibar took Witu by storm after the Sultan had refused to surrender the murderers of a German party. A British expedition under Mr. Johnston was massacred on Lake Nyassa, in January, 1892. The British defeated the natives of Witu in March, 1892. In Western Africa the British defeated the natives at Tambi, in Sierra Leone, in March, 1892, and defeated the Jebus in a number of conflicts in May and June, 1892, and finally captured the King of the Jebus. The British also won victories over the natives of South-eastern Africa, in March, 1892.

In the spring of 1892 the controversy between Great Britain and the United States concerning the Behring Sea seal fisheries was left to arbitration, and a Board of Arbitrators was appointed by Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy and Sweden. The Arbitrators met at Paris in the spring and summer of 1893.

In 1891 the advance of Russia to the Pamir, in Central Asia, led to the sending of a British expedition of observation under Captain Younghusband in the fall of that year, but all trouble was avoided by an amicable arrangement between England and Russia.

In 1892 the investigation into the Canadian Pacific Railway scandal developed an astonishing amount of corruption and bribery in which a number of prominent Canadian officials were seriously involved, among whom was Sir John Macdonald, who had recently died and who had been Prime Minister of Canada for many years.

On January 14, 1892, the British nation was called upon to mourn the death of Her Majesty's eldest grandson, His Royal Highness Prince Albert Victor Christian Edward, Duke of Clarence and Avondale, and Earl of Athlone, the eldest son of the Prince of Wales and the heir-apparent to the British throne, who was to be shortly married to his cousin, the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck. This death occurred on the very day of the deaths of two eminent and venerable Roman Catholic dignitaries, the octogenarian Cardinal Edward Manning, of England, and Cardinal Simeoni, of Rome. On the 6th of July, 1893, the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck was married to His Royal Highness Prince George, the brother of the deceased Prince Albert Victor and the new heir-apparent to the British throne. Sir Provo Wallis, the centenarian admiral of the British navy, died February 13, 1892, aged one hundred years and ten months.

In the meantime the Home Rule question occupied the most prominent place in British politics. Parliament was dissolved by the Marquis of Salisbury, June 28,

1892, and elections for a new House of Commons were ordered. The new elections were begun within a week after the dissolution of Parliament. The elections lasted several weeks and returned a majority of forty for the Liberals in the new House of Commons. The new Parliament convened early in August, 1892, and the Marquis of Salisbury and his Tory Ministry resigned August 18, 1892, whereupon a new Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone again came into power. Thus, Mr. Gladstone, at the age of eighty-two, became Prime Minister for the fourth time.

Mr. Gladstone introduced a new Home Rule Bill into Parliament in a great speech on February 13, 1893. The new bill provided for the establishment of a local Parliament for Ireland in Dublin, while at the same time retaining Ireland's representation in the Imperial Parliament at Westminster. Protestant Ulster strenuously opposed Home Rule and threatened civil war in case of the passage of a Home Rule Bill, and serious riots occurred at Belfast, in April, 1893.

On June 22, 1893, while the British Mediterranean squadron was cruising off the coast of Syria, the ironclad battleship *Victoria* was accidentally struck by the ram *Camperdown*, and sunk in a few minutes with her heroic Admiral, Sir George Tryon, and four hundred and sixty-seven of her crew, causing intense grief throughout England and creating a profound sensation throughout the civilized world.

On June 26, 1893, the Legislative Council of British India met at Simla and passed a bill to stop the free coinage of silver.

EVENTS IN GERMANY.

The elections in Germany, in March, 1890, for a new Reichstag, resulted in large gains for the Radical or Freisinnige party and the Socialists. In the same month Prince Bismarck, the Iron Chancellor, who had directed the destinies of Prussia for twenty-eight years, and of united Germany for twenty years, quarreled with the young

Emperor William II. and resigned all his offices and retired to private life. General von Caprivi succeeded him as Chancellor of the German Empire and as Prime Minister of Prussia. Count Herbert Bismarck, the old Chancellor's son, at the same time resigned the Prussian Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

In the meantime German colonies were established in Eastern Africa, under the auspices of the German East Africa Company. In the fall of 1889 a German military expedition under Dr. Peters, on its way to the relief of Emin Pasha, was massacred. Emin Pasha, who had been rescued by Mr. Stanley and the efforts of the British, was no sooner found than he entered the German service and proceeded to extend German commerce and German influence among the natives of Eastern and Central Africa. Major von Wissmann led German military expeditions against hostile native tribes, defeating many of them; but on August 30, 1890, a German party was massacred by the natives of Witu. In October, 1890, a British squadron from Zanzibar, took Witu by storm after the Sultan had refused to give up the murderers of the German party. By the Anglo-German agreement in the summer of 1890, Germany abandoned the Hinterland, in Eastern Africa, to England, in exchange for the isle of Heligoland, near the North Sea coast of Germany. In January, 1892, the Germans met with another disaster in Eastern Africa in a conflict with the natives.

The Emperor William II. had many meetings with other crowned heads. In October, 1889, the Czar of Russia visited him in Berlin. In November, 1889, William II. visited the Austrian Emperor at Vienna. In June, 1890, he visited the King of Denmark. In August following he visited England, where he met with a grand reception from his royal grandmother and her subjects; and in the same month he visited the Czar of Russia. In September of the same year he visited the Austrian Emperor in Silesia and at Vienna. In June, 1892, the Czar Alexander III. again

visited the German Emperor at Berlin, and King Humbert of Italy visited him the same month.

In the meantime William II. had taken great interest in the labor question and seemed desirous of ameliorating labor's condition. May day, 1890, was signalized by immense labor demonstrations throughout Europe, and was looked upon with apprehension by the sovereigns of Europe, but all passed off quietly. During February, 1892, there were great labor riots in Berlin, which were finally suppressed by the military under the personal direction of the young Emperor himself, who boldly faced the rioters.

King Charles of Wurtemberg died in 1891, and was succeeded by his son, WILLIAM II. In March, 1892, there was a Cabinet crisis in Prussia over Caprivi's new education bill, which was considered too favorable to the Roman Catholics. Caprivi resigned the Prussian Premiership, in which he was succeeded by Count von Eulenberg, but he remained Chancellor of the German Empire.

In May, 1893, the Reichstag rejected a bill, which had been under consideration many months, providing for an increase of the German army; whereupon the Emperor dissolved the Reichstag and appealed to the country, and the German people sustained his policy by returning a small majority in the Reichstag in favor of an increase of the army, in the elections held on the 15th of June, 1893. The Socialists largely increased their representation in the Reichstag, and a number of second ballots were necessary. The new Reichstag passed a bill increasing the army, in July, 1893.

EVENTS IN FRANCE.

In March, 1890, M. Tirard's Ministry in France gave place to a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet. In February, 1890, the Duke of Orleans, who had come to France in violation of the law, was arrested and imprisoned for three months, but was par-

doned and escorted to the Swiss frontier in May, 1890.

Early in 1890 France became involved in a war with the negro kingdom of Dahomey, in Western Africa; and in a struggle of three years King Behanzin and his army of Amazons were completely defeated in a number of conflicts. In the fall of 1891 the French troops in Tonquin were engaged in warfare with Chinese pirates. The French troops defeated the rebels in Tonquin in April, 1892.

The French Senatorial elections on Sunday, January 4, 1891, resulted in a gain of eleven seats by the Republicans. The alliance between France and Russia was fully shown in the maneuvers of the French and Russian fleets at Cronstadt, in July and August, 1891. Late in August, 1891, the French fleet visited England. Ex-President Jules Grévy died September 9, 1891. General Boulanger, who had for several years lived in exile, committed suicide at the tomb of his mistress, Madame Bonnemaïne, at Brussels, September 30, 1891.

The expulsion of M. Chadouine, a French journalist from Bulgaria, in December, 1891, for offensive articles reflecting on the Bulgarian government, led to a diplomatic rupture between that Balkan principality and the French Republic, and cordial relations were only restored when Bulgaria apologized to France and retraced her course, January, 1892.

When the French National Assembly rejected the Ministerial bill aimed at the religious orders, M. de Freycinet's Ministry resigned, February 19, 1892, and a new Ministry under M. Loubet came into power, February 27, 1892.

During the spring of 1892 Paris was exposed to Anarchist outrages, and numerous Anarchists were arrested in March of that year. These arrests aroused the ire of the Anarchists, who revenged themselves by resorting to dynamite explosions. The French authorities at once expelled all foreign Anarchists from the country. Ravachol, the leader of the Paris Anarch-

ists, was arrested for several murders. M. Véry's restaurant was blown up with dynamite and the proprietor killed, because he had testified against Ravachol. After being tried and acquitted by a timid jury, who were overawed by Anarchist threats, Ravachol was finally convicted and guillotined. The Anarchist outrages in France, along with those in Spain, Portugal and Belgium at the same time, caused widespread alarm throughout continental Europe. The dynamite plots in Paris were renewed in November, 1892, and the police bureau was wrecked by an explosion.

There was a great national fête in Paris on September 22, 1892, the centennial anniversary of the proclamation of the First French Republic.

In the meantime the great engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, the projector of the Suez Canal, had also undertaken the cutting of a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama, by organizing a gigantic company in France which obtained a charter from the Colombian government. Thousands of Frenchmen of all classes were induced to subscribe stock in the new company, but the enterprise involved such immense expenditures that the work was practically abandoned, and the thousands of contributors to the gigantic scheme found themselves swindled. A storm of popular indignation forced the Chamber of Deputies to vote for a Committee of Inquiry and for the prosecution of the Panama directors, Lesseps and others, November 21, 1892. Baron Reinach, who, as agent for the Panama Canal Company, gave over two million francs to Dr. Cornelius Herz, died suddenly under very suspicious circumstances when it was announced that a Panama inquiry would be made. M. Loubet was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies on a motion for the exhumation of Baron Reinach's body to discover whether he had been poisoned, November 28, 1892. Loubet's Ministry resigned December 5, 1892, and a new Cabinet under M. Ribot was formed. When an autopsy on Baron Reinach's body was made Dr. Herz fled to

London. A demand for documents was rejected by the Assembly, which passed a vote of confidence in Ribot's Ministry. The crisis was a serious one for the French Republic, as the Royalists and Bonapartists were making use of the scandal, in which many Republican leaders were involved, to bring about the overthrow of the Republic and the re-establishment of monarchy in France.

The Panama Committee of Inquiry began its investigation December 24, 1892. The Panama loans of 1884 and 1888 were fully investigated. The examining magistrate completed his investigation early in January, 1893. The examination tarnished many hitherto honored names of the Republic. The trial of the four Panama directors—Ferdinand de Lesseps and his son Charles, Marius Fontaine and Baron Cottu—with contractor Eiffel, the builder of the great one-thousand feet tower in Paris, began January 10, 1893. The octogenarian Ferdinand de Lesseps was unable to attend on account of illness. The trial developed very strong evidence against the defendants. Dr. Cornelius Herz was arrested at Bournemouth, England, January 19, 1893, at the demand of the French government, which asked for his extradition; but his illness prevented his removal. He was several times at the point of death.

The Chamber of Indictments committed Charles de Lesseps, M. Eiffel and ten others for trial at the Assizes on charges of giving and receiving bribes. Charles de Lesseps appealed to the Court of Assizes to quash the indictment against him. The Paris Court of Appeal pronounced judgment against the aged and infirm Ferdinand de Lesseps, his son Charles, MM. Eiffel, Cottu and Fontaine for breach of trust and for swindling the stockholders of the Panama Canal Company, February 9, 1893. There was much sympathy for the aged Ferdinand de Lesseps, whose name had been honored throughout the civilized world for more than a score of years as the projector of the Suez Canal. The other defendants lodged appeals against the true

bills against them. The trial of the Panama bribers and bribed—Charles de Lesseps and eight others—began March 8, 1893. Charles de Lesseps, Eiffel, Fontaine and Cottu were several days later sentenced to imprisonment for a term of five years. The aged Ferdinand de Lesseps was also sentenced to imprisonment, but mercy was shown in his case on account of his great age and his feeble and imbecile condition. In June following all the convicted persons were released from imprisonment on technical grounds.

While the Panama Canal inquiry was absorbing the attention of France, M. Jules Ferry, who had just been elected President of the French Senate, died very suddenly, March 17, 1893. An adverse vote in the Assembly compelled the resignation of M. Ribot's Cabinet, March 30, 1893, and the formation of a new Ministry under M. Dupuy.

Hostilities broke out between France and Siam in May, 1893, caused by the investment of the town of Khong, in Cochin China, by Loatian tribesmen. The town was relieved by the French, May 22, 1893. The Siamese Minister expressed his regret to France for the Khong incident, but the French fleet sailed to attack Bangkok, the Siamese capital, in June. On July 13, 1893, two French gunboats and the Siamese forts at Paknam exchanged shots, but the French Minister apologized to the Siamese government. On July 17, 1893, French marines captured two forts on the Upper Me-Kong river, while the Siamese sunk a French merchant vessel.

During the first week of July, 1893, there was serious rioting in Paris caused by an attempt on the part of the government to prevent certain disgraceful proceedings on the part of students in a ball. The rioters routed the police and the military, and the government finally compromised with them by rescinding the order interfering with the conduct of the ball, thus giving the students practically a victory in their lawlessness. The crisis was considered serious for the French Republic,

and all parties and factions were indulging in threats.

RUSSIAN AFFAIRS.

In the meantime the Nihilists had been as active as ever throughout Russia, and conspiracies and assassinations were the order of the day. The constant arrests and transportations to Siberia did not tend in the least to deter the revolutionary elements in the Czar's dominions. Plot after plot against the Czar himself was discovered, and the autocrat was compelled to keep himself shut up in his palace as a virtual prisoner. The prisoners in Siberia had been subjected to the most outrageous cruelties, and numerous escapes and attempts to escape had been made. In December, 1889, there was a terrible slaughter of a number of prisoners who attempted to escape from their place of confinement. In March, 1890, the students in the Russian universities gave considerable annoyance to the authorities by their disturbances.

In the summer of 1890 the Jews in Russia, who had been subjected to the most cruel mob violence in 1882 and 1883, were again the victims of persecution, this time by the Russian government itself. Late in July, 1890, decrees were issued in Russia allowing the Jews to reside only in large towns and forbidding them to pursue certain occupations, depriving them of privileges of education and of entering the learned professions or becoming military engineers. All Jewish students were expelled from the higher institutions of learning, and all Jews were shut out from government offices. A million Jews lost their homes, and thousands migrated from Russia. The resolutions of a mass meeting in London petitioning the Czar to relent in his treatment of his Hebrew subjects angered the Czar, who resented all foreign interference. Early in January, 1891, Jews were forbidden to practice law in Russia. In April, 1891, the Jews were ordered to leave St. Petersburg and to reside in Eastern and Southern Russia.

Late in November, 1892, the Jews of Moscow were ordered to convert their synagogue into a charitable institution or sell it, and an imperial ukase expelled all soldiers of the Jewish race from Moscow. The persecution of the unfortunate race continued without abatement.

In 1891 the failure of the wheat crop in Russia caused a horrible famine in that country, and thirty million people were suffering the pangs of hunger. Thousands of the peasants died daily from starvation, and the measures of the government were unable to afford the people relief. On August 11, 1891, an imperial ukase forbade the exportation of rye from Russia. Cargoes of wheat were sent from the United States to the famine-stricken land.

During the summer of 1891 a Russian military expedition advanced as far in Central Asia as the Pamir tableland, but Russia's right to occupy this region was disputed by China and England, and it seemed likely that the latter two powers would combine against her. A second Russian military expedition was sent to the Pamir in the summer of 1892, and conflicts occurred between the Russians and the Afghans; but an amicable arrangement was finally made with China and England. In 1891 the Czarewitch was traveling in Eastern Asia, and while in Japan he was wounded by a policeman, May 11, 1891, but he soon recovered.

EVENTS OF OTHER NATIONS.

An International Anti-Slavery Conference convened at Brussels, November 18, 1889, and remained in session until July, 1890. This conference, composed of delegates from the leading nations of the world, considered measures for the suppression of the slave trade in Africa. During the year 1790 the Sultan of Zanzibar abolished slavery and admitted former slaves to equal civil rights with other freemen. In March, 1890, a European Labor Conference convened at Berlin. M. Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, resigned March 7, 1890, and was succeeded by Count Julius Szapary.

In the spring of 1890 Bulgaria was disturbed by the conspiracy of Major Panitza against Prince Ferdinand and Prime Minister Stambouloff, at Sofia, and the Russian Minister at Bucharest was implicated in this plot. At the trial of Major Panitza, in May, 1890, the complicity of Russian officials was clearly proven. Major Panitza and eight others were found guilty in June. Panitza was sentenced to be shot and the other conspirators to imprisonment. Panitza was shot June 28, 1890.

On September 11, 1890, a Liberal rising occurred in the Swiss canton of Ticino against the Ultramontane or ruling party, and the rebels set up a provisional government of their own adherents. The national government of Switzerland sent troops to the scene of the disturbance, and the cantonal government was taken out of the hands of the insurgents and order was restored.

On October 29, 1890, the States-General of Holland declared King William III. incapable of governing on account of insanity, and created his wife, Queen Emma, Regent. On the death of King William III., November 23, 1890, his little nine-year-old daughter, Wilhelmina, became Queen of Holland, under her mother's regency; but as females are excluded from the sovereignty of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, the Duke of Nassau became Grand Duke of Luxemburg. As the republicans were active throughout Holland after the king's death, the police seized a large number of republican placards, and measures were taken to prevent any dissemination of republican ideas. In April, 1893, the Dutch defeated the Atcheenese in Sumatra.

In Italy Signor Crispi's Ministry resigned in consequence of the defeat of his party in the elections, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under the Marquis di Rudini, February, 1891. It was under the new Ministry that Italy became involved in a diplomatic rupture with the United States in consequence of the lynching (March 14, 1891) by a mob in New Orleans of eleven Italians who had been ac-

quitted by a jury of the murder of Chief of Police David C. Hennessy, on October 13, 1890. The affair was finally settled by the United States making reparation and paying an indemnity.

Switzerland celebrated the six hundredth anniversary of her national existence by grand festivities, beginning August 12, 1891.

We have alluded to the Italian occupation of Massowah, on the Abyssinian coast of the Red Sea. King John, of Abyssinia, having been killed by rebels at Metemneh, March 10, 1889, Italy took Abyssinia under her protection in the fall of 1889. The Italian East Africa Company undertook the development of the new Italian acquisitions. After months of negotiation Italy and England came to an agreement respecting North-eastern Africa, March 24, 1891.

The Portuguese annexations in British Zambesia, and Major Serpa Pinto's massacre of natives who were allies of the British in South-eastern Africa, occasioned serious complications between Portugal and England. The Portuguese claimed territory between the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, but England denied these claims because the Portuguese had never occupied this territory. The Portuguese South Africa Company was at once organized for the development of Portuguese influence in Southern Africa. In April, 1891, the Portuguese became involved in difficulties with natives of Mozambique and Guinea.

The struggle between the Egyptians and the Dervishes in Nubia still continued, and the Dervishes were defeated at Suakim, January 27, 1891, and Handoub was captured by the Egyptians the next day. Egyptian troops under Colonel Holled Smith captured Tokar and defeated the Dervishes, more than seven hundred of whom were killed, February 19, 1891. Osman Digma fled to Kassala. The Khedive of Egypt, Tewfik Pasha, died January 7, 1892, and was succeeded by his eldest son, ABBAS PASHA.

In the meantime the intrigues of ex-Queen Natalie, the divorced wife of King

Milan of Servia, led to her expulsion from Servia, in May, 1891, by the Servian government; but the populace of Belgrade arose in her favor, and for several days the Servian capital was disturbed by serious riots. Two years later the young King Alexander III. deposed the Regents by a *coup d'état*, seizing them by violence and taking the government into his own hands, April 13, 1893.

Belgium was threatened with a political crisis in May, 1890, in consequence of the agitation among the laboring masses, who had the sympathy of the army and the people with them. The Belgian Chamber of Deputies decided in favor of a revision of the Belgian constitution granting universal suffrage, May 21, 1890. There was an immense Socialist demonstration in Brussels in favor of universal suffrage, forty thousand men being in procession, August 10, 1890. The Ministry introduced a bill into the Chambers providing for the extension of the franchise, November 27, 1890, but the matter was delayed for several years. In the spring of 1892 there were Anarchist outrages in Belgium, as well as in France and Spain, the most terrible of which was the explosion in the town hall at Liège, May 3, 1892. The Chambers repeatedly rejected the demand for universal suffrage. The rejection on November 8, 1892, led to the assembling of a mob in front of the royal palace, but the mob was dispersed by gendarmes. Early in the spring of 1893 the determination of the Belgian workmen forced the Chambers to grant universal suffrage in order to avoid revolution.

The first elections based on universal suffrage in Spain, on Sunday, February 1, 1891, resulted in large gains for the Conservative Ministry. During the first few months of 1892 Spain was disturbed by Anarchist outrages similar to those of France at the same time. Troops were sent to suppress an Anarchist movement in the province of Malaga. An Anarchist outbreak occurred at Xeres de la Frontera, January 9, 1892, and the Anarchist move-

ment extended to San Ferrado, causing intense alarm. The four Anarchist leaders in the rising at Xeres de la Frontera were executed February 10, 1892. The Anarchists throughout Spain circulated placards threatening vengeance for the execution of their brethren at Xeres de la Frontera, and the police made many arrests at Barcelona, Cadiz and other places. The police at Xeres de la Frontera put the Anarchists to flight. An Anarchist plot to blow up the Chamber of Deputies at Madrid caused intense alarm. There was a great demonstration at Madrid in honor of Columbus, November 13, 1892.

A republican revolt at Oporto, Portuga., on January 31, 1891, was crushed by the military with the loss of one hundred killed and wounded.

RECENT EVENTS IN CHINA.

During 1890, 1891 and 1892 there were serious anti-foreign riots in China, in which mobs attacked European and American missionaries and other foreigners in the large cities of the Celestial Empire. These outrages threatened to bring about a coalition of Great Britain, France, Germany and the United States against China in the fall of 1891.

The Celestial Empire was distracted by formidable rebellions in Mongolia and Mantchooria, as well as by revolts in various provinces in China proper. Several thousand rebels were slaughtered in battle, in March, 1892. In the Chien Chang district eight hundred captured rebels were massacred, March, 1892. China ceded Sikkim to England, in March, 1890, and was ready in 1891 to coöperate with England in checking the Russian advance to the Pamir plateau.

China had acquired great strength under the administrations of Prince Kung, the Marquis Tseng and Li Hung Chang; and internal improvements, such as railroad and telegraph lines, were gradually introduced.

THE CHILIAN CIVIL WAR OF 1891.

The most important event in South American history during 1891 was the bloody civil

war in Chili between President José Manuel Balmaceda and the Congress of that republic. This sanguinary struggle began with the first day of the year and lasted eight months, and was caused by the arbitrary and despotic rule of President Balmaceda, who virtually acted as dictator, endeavoring constantly to establish practically his own will as the law of the republic, and repeatedly overriding the constitution and laws of the land.

Chili has always been the most enlightened of all the Spanish American nations, and has been usually little disturbed by such revolutions and civil wars as have constantly distracted the other Latin American republics. That republic has been internally at peace from 1851 to 1891, a period of forty years, during which period she, in alliance with Peru, carried on a war against Spain, and in 1881 she vanquished both Peru and Bolivia in a bloody war of two years, as already noted.

It was apparent to careful observers from the beginning of the recent internal struggle that the rebel or Congressional party must eventually succeed, as four-fifths of the Chilian people were on the side of the Congress against President Balmaceda. The Chilian Congress and people were fighting for the cause of popular government against a one-man power as represented by the dictator Balmaceda. The Congress and people of Chili had as good a cause in their armed opposition to President Balmaceda as the English Parliament and people two and a half centuries ago had against King Charles I. As their adherents outnumbered the partisans of Balmaceda four to one, the success of the rebels was only a question of time.

The insurgents had a formidable naval armament, and were thus superior to dictator Balmaceda on the water. Their land forces held possession of the country both north and south of Santiago and Valparaiso, the capital and the chief seaport of the country, which were held by President Balmaceda's forces until just before the end of the war. The possession of the great nitrate deposits, the chief source of wealth

to the country, was of immense advantage to the Congressionalists, who worked those mines for all they were worth, and thus obtained the cash necessary for carrying on the struggle against dictator Balmaceda.

Balmaceda's weak points were his inferior navy and his want of money. As he was unable to borrow money he seized the silver in the national treasury at Santiago, which was stored there as security for the fiduciary circulation, in order to be able to pay sums due to European contractors who had supplied him with ships, arms and ammunition. This destructive civil war in Chili began January 1, 1891. Most of the army supported President Balmaceda, but the rest of the army and almost the entire navy sided with the Congress. Portions of the dictator's army at different times deserted to the insurgents. The Congressional proclamation against the President was issued January 5, 1891. The President's proclamation was issued two days later, and three hundred citizens were imprisoned by the President. The Congressional navy blockaded the ports.

The Congressionalists won three victories at Coquimbo, in January, 1891. The Congressional fleet captured the ship *Cleopatra* with five thousand rifles and a large quantity of ammunition, January 9, 1891. There were a number of indecisive conflicts in Chili during January and February, 1891. Tarapaca and Atacama, in the North of Chili, were occupied by the Congressionalists. The Congressionalists won a victory at Dolores, February 15, 1891. The Congressional fleet bombarded Pisagua and burned the town, February 6, 1891, and captured Iquique after a fierce bombardment, February 16, 1891. Over two hundred women and children were killed during this bombardment, and the business part of Iquique was fired by incendiaries the same evening. By the mediation of the British Admiral Hotham, a short armistice was concluded until the 20th (February, 1891). The Congressionalists were repulsed at Huara, February 17, 1891, and were defeated the next day. The Congress-

sionalists were victorious at Iquique, where the President's troops surrendered, February 20, 1891. Pisagua was recaptured by the Balmacedist troops, and one hundred Congressional troops were killed and eight hundred captured, of whom eighteen officers were shot in cold blood.

President Balmaceda issued a decree confiscating all the property of rebel Senators and Deputies, and threatened to shoot several relatives of Senators and Deputies. The rebels seized several prominent friends of Balmaceda and threatened to take life for life, even threatening to shoot his particular friend, the Bishop of Serena. The prisons of Santiago were crowded with political prisoners. Three hundred fled from Balmaceda's clutches across the Andes into the Argentine Republic. President Balmaceda convoked a new Presidential election for the first Sunday in March, and declared the members of Congress rebels. Balmaceda's cruelties, imprisonments, floggings of Congressional leaders, and the massacre by Colonel Robles at Tarapaca justified Congressional reprisals.

The Congressionalists captured Ancud and Antofagasta in February, 1891. Their land forces numbered twelve thousand men. The Peruvian steamer *Santa Rosa*, with arms for Balmaceda, was captured by the insurgents. The Congressionalists won a victory on March 6, 1891, and the President's troops deserted to the rebels. Tarapaca and all Southern Chili were in the possession of the Congressionalists. The Congressionalists were victorious at Pozo Almonte, near Iquique, March 8, 1891. The Mayor and garrison of Valparaiso joined the rebels and seized the Balmacedist transport *Maida*, and sailed northward. The Congressionalists bombarded and took Antofagasta, March 23, 1891, and captured Arica and Tacna without resistance, April 7, 1891.

On April 18, 1891, there was naval fighting near Valparaiso. The Balmacedist tug *Florence* was blown out of the water and her crew drowned, by a shell from the Congressional ironclad *Blanca Encalada*, and

the Balmacedist torpedo boat was knocked to pieces by a broadside from the Congressional sloop-of-war *O'Higgins*. The Congressional vessels then attacked the forts of Valparaiso and a lively battle ensued. Several shells from the forts tore the deck of the *O'Higgins* to pieces and blew nine of her guns and twelve of her crew to pieces. The *Blanca Encalada* was sunk in Caldera Bay by the Balmacedist vessels *Sergeanto Aldea*, *Almirante Condell* and *Almirante Lynch*, April 23, 1891. The Congressional cruiser *Magellanes* defeated the President's flotilla at Chanaral, April 24, 1891. There was indecisive fighting at Taltal between the citizens and the President's vessels, *Imperial* and *Almirante Condell*, May 21, 1891. These vessels bombarded Iquique and engaged the Congressional fleet on the same day. On land the Congressionalists were continually gaining ground and the President's troops were constantly deserting to them.

The Congressional transport *Itata* escaped from San Diego, California, after her seizure by the United States authorities on the charge of violating the neutrality laws of the United States by carrying arms to the Congressional party, and was pursued by the United States war vessel *Charleston*, May, 1891. The *Itata* was finally surrendered to the United States Consul at Iquique, June, 1891.

Balmaceda's new Congress passed several acts legalizing all he had done thus far, June, 1891. The efforts of the European Ministers at Santiago, and those of the United States and Brazil, to bring about a peace, failed, June, 1891.

The Balmacedist vessels *Almirante Lynch* and *Almirante Condell* bombarded Iquique, June 9, 1891, but were soon driven off by Congressional vessels. The Congressional squadron bombarded Pisagua, June 8, 1891, and Iquique, June 9, 1891; occupied Tocopilla, June 10, 1891; bombarded Antofagasta, occupied Chanaral and silenced the land batteries.

The Congressionalists were repulsed in two battles near Huasco, in Northern Chili,

July 8, 1891. A few days later the Congressionalists were defeated after a desperate battle. The Congressionalists captured the town of Coronel, but the Balmacedists re-took Vallemar from the Congressionalists.

The Congressional fleet arrived at Valparaiso, July 10, 1891. Several of the President's vessels were defeated by the Congressional cruiser *Magellanes* off the Chilian coast, July 12, 1891.

In the meantime Balmaceda had several large ironclad cruisers built in France. The *Presidente Pinto* was detained at Kiel, in Germany, late in August, 1891; and the *Presidente Errazuriz* was detained at Lisbon, in Portugal, in July and August.

The Congressionalists now determined to end the war by a decisive and effective blow directed against Valparaiso and Santiago. Accordingly a Congressional force of eight thousand men under General Canto landed at Quintero Bay, twenty miles north from Valparaiso, August 20, 1891. President Balmaceda and his generals were completely taken by surprise, but Balmacedist troops were sent against the insurgents, and terrific fighting followed the next day and lasted for a full week, August 21-28, 1891. The losses were heavy on both sides. The rebels, though greatly outnumbered, were victorious from the start, and advanced to within five miles of Valparaiso, amid constant fighting. Balmaceda's forces occupied vantage-ground, and his army was backed up by the guns from Fort Callao; but the Congressional artillery did terrible execution. General Canto, the Congressional commander, was a veteran who commanded the Chilian forces in the war with Peru and Bolivia ten years before. Balmaceda's forces outnumbered the Congressionalists two to one; but the superiority of the Congressionalist firearms gave that party the final success, their troops being armed with Remingtons and Winchesters, twenty thousand of which were brought from the United States by the *Esmeralda* on her return to Chili.

In the sanguinary and decisive battles of Vina del Mar and Placilla, August 24-28, 1891, the most desperate valor was shown on both sides, as it was to be a life-and-death struggle. The Congressional fleet actively aided General Canto's army. The Congressionalists drove back the Balmacedists and surrounded Valparaiso. Many of Balmaceda's troops deserted to the Congressionalists during the fighting. In the final and decisive battle of Placilla, seven miles from Valparaiso, August 28, 1891, the Balmacedists were utterly routed and driven into Valparaiso, with the loss of fifteen hundred killed and wounded, and three thousand prisoners. Balmaceda's leading commanders, Generals Barbosa and Alzeweca, were killed while leading their troops against the rebels. The dictator's army was crushed and dispersed, beyond all hope of reorganization, and he was practically a fugitive. Balmaceda's power was thus utterly broken, without any chances of recovery, and the victorious Congressionalists took possession of Valparaiso, August 28, and of Santiago, Sunday, August 30, 1891.

Señor Claudio Vicuña, President-elect, and Señor Viel, Intendente of Valparaiso, fled for refuge to the German warship *Leipsic*. The *Almirante Lynch* and other Balmacedist warships fell into the hands of the victors. Other Balmacedist refugees went on board the German and American warships in the harbor of Valparaiso, and to the American legation in Santiago. Señor Vicuña finally reached New York.

After surrendering his capital to the victorious rebels, President Balmaceda fled to the mountains for the purpose of escaping from the country. The residences of Balmaceda, his mother, the dead General Barbosa and other obnoxious individuals were burned by an infuriate mob, which held the capital at its mercy. There was also riot and incendiarism in Valparaiso, where almost two million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, but order was finally restored after two hundred rioters had been shot down by troops.

The defeat of Balmaceda, the fall of Valparaiso and Santiago, the flight of Balmaceda and the complete triumph of the Congressional cause occasioned great rejoicings in Valparaiso and Santiago, and the festivities in honor of the great victory lasted several days. The victorious Congressionalists established a provisional government at Santiago, under Admiral Jorge Montt, September 4, 1891. The new government was soon recognized by the United States, England, France, Germany, Italy and other powers. The Balmacedist torpedo boat *Almirante Condell* and the armed transport *Imperial* surrendered at Callao, Peru, September 4, 1891.

In the meantime the fallen dictator Balmaceda attempted to escape across the Andes into the Argentine Republic; but, as his escape was cut off by his victorious foes, he committed suicide at the Argentine legation in Santiago, September 20, 1891, and his body was buried secretly in that city. He left letters to his mother, his wife, the Argentine Minister and a friend, stating that he would not receive fair treatment from his triumphant enemies, who thirsted for his blood. His death caused intense excitement and general joy in Santiago and Valparaiso, and those cities were brilliantly illuminated.

Chili was rapidly recovering from the effects of the destructive civil war through which the country had just passed. The belief among the victorious party that the United States Minister at Santiago, Patrick Egan, was a friend of Balmaceda, and that the Americans in Chili had given sympathy and aid to Balmaceda, gave rise to a bitter feeling toward Americans, which was heightened by the American Minister's action in affording an asylum to the Balmacedist refugees at the American legation in Santiago. The legation was surrounded and watched by police and detectives to prevent the escape of the refugees. Finally a riot at Valparaiso, October 16, 1891, when a party of American sailors were attacked by a mob and two of them killed, brought matters to a crisis, and threatened war with

the United States. The Chilean provisional government was at first very defiant, but after several months' negotiation, conducted at Washington by Señor Pedro Montt, a brother of Admiral Jorge Montt, on the part of Chili, the dispute was settled by Chili making a satisfactory apology and agreeing to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims of the riot, January, 1892.

The Liberals triumphed in elections for a new Congress, which resulted in returning thirty Liberals and two Clericals to the Senate, and sixty-two Liberals and thirty-two Clericals to the Chamber of Deputies. Admiral Jorge Montt was unanimously elected President of Chili by the electoral colleges of the republic, November 18, 1891. He was inaugurated in the Plaza Independencia amid three salvos of artillery, December 26, 1891. The Balmacedist refugees at the United States legation attempted to throw railway cars off the track and to throw bombs into the procession. The American residents at Santiago were indignant at the attempted outrages, and held meetings to denounce the refugees.

In a few days after his inauguration the new President completed his Cabinet. In accordance with the recommendation of the provisional government a general amnesty bill was passed by Congress, from which a few of the Balmacedist leaders were excepted.

CIVIL WAR IN BRAZIL, 1891.

A new constitution proclaimed in Brazil in the summer of 1890 made the President responsible to the nation, the Cabinet members to be styled Secretaries of State and to be responsible to the President.

Like Chili, Brazil had a struggle between its President and its Congress in 1891, because President Deodora da Fonseca assumed the role of dictator, as President Balmaceda had done in Chili. The trouble in Brazil was caused by the attempt of Congress to deprive President Fonseca of his constitutional veto power. The Congress persisted in its scheme, and the Presi-

dent sought to save his veto power by adopting the heroic course of forcibly dissolving Congress by military power, thus imitating Cromwell in England, the Bonapartes in France and Iturbide in Mexico.

President Fonseca dissolved Congress, declared martial law, suspended all constitutional guarantees, and made himself dictator, November 4, 1891. Soldiers guarded the public buildings, and a rigorous censorship was exercised over all dispatches sent abroad. In consequence of the President's action, four States of Brazil at once seceded from the Republic and declared their independence. Several garrisons revolted against Fonseca's dictatorship. The rebels fortified the city of Rio Grande do Sul, in the streets of which a battle was fought in which the dictator's forces were defeated with heavy loss. The disaffection throughout the country was spreading rapidly and the dictator's power was becoming more precarious daily. Many of the National Guards and volunteers joined the revolt, and the flotilla in the Uruguay river sided with the rebels. The Deputies in Congress from the State of Rio Grande do Sul were jailed. Three other States revolted and seceded. Finally a revolt broke out in Rio Janeiro, November 21, 1891. The navy joined the rebels two days later, thus forcing President Fonseca to resign, November 23, 1891. General Floriano Peixoto was at once elected his successor. The new President convoked Congress for December 18, 1891, and annulled the state of siege and revoked his predecessor's arbitrary acts.

Peace was not immediately restored throughout the Republic. A revolutionary provisional government was established in the State of Rio Janeiro, and there was a conflict on the Campos at Rio Janeiro, December 8, 1891. The Governor of Sao Paulo was forced to resign, December 13, 1891. The citizens of Pernambuco had a conflict with the police and the military, December, 1891, and forced the Governor to resign. In all, eleven States deposed their Governors. The States of Rio Grande do

Sul and Matto Grasso remained rebellious for over a year, but were finally subdued by the national troops after many conflicts. The ex-Emperor Dom Pedro II. died in Portugal, December 5, 1891.

The times seemed inauspicious for dictators in South America. In July, 1890, a formidable military and naval revolt at Buenos Ayres, in which several thousand lives were lost, forced President Celman, of the Argentine Republic, to resign; and in the summer of 1892 President Palacio, of Venezuela, was overthrown, after a bloody civil war of many months, during which his forces were constantly defeated by his rival, General Crespo, who finally captured Caracas, after a desperate battle, and made himself President.

FRANCO-SIAMESE DISPUTE.

In our account of the recent events in France we have alluded to that Republic's dispute with Siam. As this affair threatened to end in international complications, a fuller account of the controversy will be given here.

The French complained of Siamese aggression on French territory in Anam, the Siamese having established military posts in Cochin China, not far from Hue, the capital of Anam, and threatened to cut off Tonquin from Cochin China, early in the spring of 1893. The French drove back the Siamese invaders and recovered three hundred miles of territory. The Siamese evacuated the island of Khong, but tried to recapture it and seized Captain Thoreux and his men. At the demand of France Captain Thoreux and his men were released, and Siam gave the most pacific assurances. M. Groscurin, a French inspector, was assassinated in his tent by order of a Siamese mandarin, whom he was under orders to conduct back so as to protect him against the population, the victims of his exactions. The Siamese government asked for time to make an inquiry and gave assurances of its readiness to grant France full reparation after having ascertained the facts.

In July, 1893, the French fleet under Admiral Humann sailed toward Bangkok. The French gunboats *Comète* and *Inconstante*, although refused permission by Siam to ascend the Menam river, went up the river toward Bangkok, July 13, 1893, and were fired upon by the Siamese forts with the loss of three killed and two wounded on the part of the crews, while twenty Siamese were killed in the forts. One Siamese gunboat was hulled, and the French steamer *Say* was sunk. The French gunboat *Forfait* came two days later.

The French Minister at Bangkok, M. Pavie, apologized to the Siamese government, saying that the French gunboats ascended the river in defiance of his orders. The French government forwarded an energetic protest to the Siamese government against the attack on the French sailors.

On July 18, 1893, the French government sent an *ultimatum* to Siam, demanding the cession of the territory on the east side of the Mekong river to the French possessions in Anam; the evacuation of the forts held there by the Siamese within a month; full satisfaction for various aggressions on French ships and sailors on the Menam river; the punishment of the culprits and provision for the pecuniary indemnity of the victims; an indemnity of three million francs for various damages sustained by French subjects; and the immediate deposit of three million francs to guarantee the payment of the indemnity and the punishment of the culprits, or the assignment of taxes in certain districts in lieu of the deposit of three million francs. Siam was given forty-eight hours in which to answer the French *ultimatum*, and in case the terms of the *ultimatum* were rejected France was to declare a blockade.

The Franco-Siamese quarrel threatened to involve England and China in the dispute as allies of Siam. China, as the nominal suzerain of Siam, threatened to send a military force to the aid of the Siamese; while Great Britain, alarmed for the safety

of the eastern frontier of British India and for her commercial interests in Siam, sent several warships to Siamese waters; and German warships were also sent to act in conjunction with the British and for the protection of German commercial interests.

The Chinese Ambassador in London was in close consultation with Lord Rosebery, British Minister of Foreign Affairs, the result of which was that England and China were negotiating a defensive alliance against France. England urged Li Hung Chang, the Chinese Viceroy, to send a fleet to Bangkok. Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador at Paris, had many conferences with M. Develle, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs; while M. Develle was in constant telegraphic communication with M. Pavie, the French Minister Resident at Bangkok.

The diplomatic relations between England and France were fast approaching a rupture, and war was threatened between the two nations. The British press assumed a firm tone in support of Lord Rosebery's attitude for the protection of British interests; while the French press and people clamored loudly for war with England, and resented all foreign interference with plans for bringing Siam to terms. England was warmly supported in her course by Germany, and the Berlin press heartily commended Lord Rosebery's action.

The approach of the French fleet under Admiral Humann caused great excitement and alarm at Bangkok, and the Siamese king and his court were on the point of fleeing from their capital. The land telegraph wires between Bangkok and Saigon were cut by the Siamese, thus necessitating some delay in the transmission of dispatches to the French warships at Bangkok.

The French fleet under Admiral Humann began a blockade of Bangkok, July 28, 1893, having given notice to foreign vessels the preceding day. Out-going vessels were warned that they must clear from Bangkok the next day or submit to detention. The blockade was to extend along the entire north coast of the Gulf of Siam.

The Siamese feared that France was aim-

ing to make their whole country a French province. The Siamese government in a note to M. Pavie expressed its ardent desire for the maintenance of peace, and accepted the full terms of the French *ultimatum*, July 29, 1893; and the French blockade was raised in a few days and amicable relations were restored.

Thus the crisis which had threatened to involve not only France and Siam, but also England and China, and probably Germany, was amicably adjusted. Hard as were the conditions which powerful France imposed upon weak Siam, those terms would have been still severer had not England and China interfered in Siam's behalf.

BRITISH AFFAIRS.

The discussion of the Irish Home Rule Bill occupied the attention of the British Parliament during the whole of the spring and summer of 1893, and the bill was finally passed by the House of Commons by the drastic application of closure, on September 3, 1893, but on September 22 the bill was rejected by the House of Lords by a vote of four hundred and nineteen to forty-one—a majority of rather more than ten to one. The action of the House of Lords in this instance was resented by the Liberal party, and Mr. Gladstone announced his intention of starting an agitation for the abolition of the House of Lords, but the proposed movement soon collapsed.

In the fall of 1893 the settlement of critical questions in South Africa was attended with bloodshed. For a long time trouble had been brewing between the young men of the warlike Matabeles and the white settlers in Mashonaland; and in July, 1893, a Matabele raid upon the Mashonas, a timid, peaceful race, had to be repelled by force on the part of the police of the British South Africa Company. In a short time this company was at war with Lobengula, the Matabele king; and the company's force, acting in coöperation with the Bechuanaland police, under Colonel Goold-Adams, advanced in October, 1893, through a difficult and almost unknown country upon Bul-

uwayo. It was an anxious time for all concerned, as the Matabele king had at least fifteen thousand warriors, as brave as the Soudanese, against eight hundred British. The Matabeles knew the country, and the dreaded rainy season was approaching. But in a month from the first advance, the little British force, armed with modern weapons and faultlessly led, had defeated Lobengula in several sharp encounters, had lost but very few of their number, had occupied Buluwayo, the Matabele capital, and forced Lobengula to take flight. Major Forbes and Major Allan Wilson undertook to capture Lobengula. Major Wilson was overpowered and killed by a force of Matabeles, December 3, 1893, but died fighting to the last. Major Forbes was attacked by the Matabeles, December 8, 1893. The British South Africa Company undertook the development of the vast mineral resources of South Africa, now the richest gold district in the world.

In East Africa, in 1893 and in 1894, the British were actively engaged in suppressing the slave trade. Commissioner Johnston sent troops under Major C. E. Johnson and E. A. Edwards, who defeated the slave trading tribes in Nyassaland. Two British gunboats, the *Pioneer* and the *Adventure*, in Lake Nyassa, coöperated with the land expedition. The British continued victorious over the native tribes, although the British East Africa Company had abandoned Uganda. Early in 1895 the British defeated Kawingo, a native African chief and a slave trader, who had carried off some of the people of Malemya, a friendly chief, and burned some of his villages. Kawingo's people were carried off and some of his villages were burned.

In West Africa the British police of Sierra Leone defeated four thousand Sofas, December 28, 1893, and that fierce tribe was chastised by the British, who took the stronghold of Chief Nana. Two fights by mistake occurred between the British under Colonel Ellis and the French of Senegambia, the French mistaking the British for Sofas during the night, December 23, 1893, and

early in January, 1894. Korona, chief of Ouema, who deceived both parties, was executed by the British, February 16, 1894. The British government chartered the Royal Niger Company to trade in this region. The British defeated natives on the Niger, February 22, 1895. The Anglo-French agreement concerning the Niger region was made in November, 1893.

At the close of June, 1893, the government of British India closed its mints against the coinage of silver. In the fall of 1893 serious riots occurred at Bombay, Poonah and Rangoon, between the Mohammedans and the Brahmans, and quiet was only restored when troops appeared upon the scene. Early in 1894 Lord Lansdowne was succeeded as Viceroy of British India by Lord Elgin, under whom India continued to prosper, and the various tribes in Burmah and on the northwestern frontier were chastised by the military police. Some serious frontier troubles occurred in the northwest, along the Hindoo Koosh mountains, concerning the delimitation of Waziristan, causing some loss on the British side, near the close of 1894.

At the beginning of 1895 a British Indian military expedition under Colonels Egerton and Turner proceeded against Waziristan and occupied the country, as the native tribes had readily submitted, while three thousand cattle were captured. The Waziris were defeated and a thousand cattle were captured soon afterward. At the beginning of February, 1895, Umra Khan of Jandol defeated the Chitralis after severe fighting and occupied Chitral without resistance. He was afterward defeated, but he captured the fort of Drosh, February 9, 1895. As Umra Khan refused to evacuate Chitral, a British expedition of fourteen thousand men under General Sir H. Low marched against him. Captain Ross and Lieutenant Jones with three hundred Cashmere, Punjab and Sikh troops proceeded to join Lieutenants Edwards and Fowler, but were attacked by natives, and a two days' fight followed, in which Captain Ross and fifty-four men were killed, March 9 and 10, 1895. Sir H.

Low's expedition advanced in two columns. Two brigades stormed the Malakand pass, defended by twelve thousand Swatis, April 3, 1895, the British losing sixty killed and wounded, and the Swatis about five hundred killed and wounded. Lieutenants Edwards and Fowler were cut off at Reshun and captured by Umra Khan. Captain Ross was cut off and killed. Lieutenant Parker was stabbed and severely wounded by a fanatical Mohammedan. In the meantime the Chitral fort was bravely defended by Captain Townshend, and was relieved by friendly natives. Colonel Kelly was delayed by snow storms. The British drove the hostile tribesmen from the hills about Miankalai, April 17. Over a hundred British were killed and wounded during the siege. Mr. Robertson and Colonel Campbell were wounded and Captain Baird was killed. Umra Khan fled and was captured by Afghans. There were several assassinations by Ghazi fanatics during April, 1895.

While the British arms had been thus engaged on the northwestern frontier of India, Lieutenant Prendergast with the military police chastised the Kachins and Chins in Burmah, in January, 1895.

The Manchester ship canal, connecting Manchester with Liverpool, was finished, January 1, 1894, when the first cotton ship passed through, and was formally opened by Queen Victoria in the presence of vast crowds, in May, 1894. In February, 1894, the House of Lords rejected the Parish Councils Bill, or Local Government Bill, as passed by the House of Commons, but afterwards passed the bill in an amended form, and this amended bill was accepted by the House of Commons and by the Ministry, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent.

Having now now entered his eighty-fifth year, Mr. Gladstone considered it advisable to retire from active public life, and early in March, 1894, he resigned the office of Prime Minister, which he had now held for the fourth time, and was succeeded by his Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Lord Rosebery, who entered upon his duties as Premier on March 5, 1894.

In April, 1894, John Morley introduced a bill to facilitate and make provision for the restoration of evicted tenants to their holdings in Ireland. The bill was bitterly opposed by Messrs. Balfour, Chamberlain and Carson, and was debated for several months and finally passed by the House of Commons, only to be rejected by the House of Lords on a second reading by a vote of two hundred and forty-nine to thirty, just before the adjournment of Parliament on on August 25, 1894. During this session Parliament extended local government to Scotland. The rejection, by the House of Lords, of three measures passed by the House of Commons, within a year—the Irish Home Rule Bill, the Parish Councils Bill and the Evicted Tenants Bill—caused Lord Rosebery to take up the fight for the abolition of the Lords begun by Mr. Gladstone, and which was characterized by Mr. Balfour as "a declaration of war against the ancient constitution of these realms." Upon the rejection of the Evicted Tenants Bill, Lord Rosebery declared that "with the democratic suffrage we now enjoy, a chamber so constituted is an anomaly and a danger." The Liberal party speakers echoed and emphasized the new Prime Minister's words at many political meetings during the fall of 1894, but thus far the cry met with little response.

Late in June, 1895, Lord Rosebery's Ministry resigned in consequence of a vote of censure in the House of Commons, whereupon a Conservative Ministry under Lord Salisbury undertook the direction of the destinies of the British Empire. The new Ministry at once prepared to dissolve Parliament and to order an election for a new Parliament.

The killing of many Italian workmen in a quarrel with French workmen at Aigues Mortes, in the spring of 1893, caused trouble between France and Italy, and angry popular demonstrations against France followed in Rome, but the trouble was settled by the two governments

The general election in France in the fall

of 1893 resulted in favor of the Dupuy Ministry and the moderate Republicans, and the utter destruction of the remnant of the Boulangist party. A month later occurred the visit of the Russian fleet to Toulon, in return for the visit of the French fleet to Cronstadt in 1891. Three hundred thousand persons were in the streets of Toulon to receive the guests and hoped-for allies of the French people, and when the Russian admiral, Avellan, and his officers visited Paris the excitement and joy of the entire population of the French capital almost reached the point of madness. It was a week of fêtes, hospitalities and patriotic demonstrations, and the guests retired loaded with presents and almost literally overwhelmed with kindness. In addition to this interchange of courtesies, the Czar himself had honored the French ships at Copenhagen with a personal visit.

M. Dupuy's Ministry resigned November 2, 1893, and after a prolonged crisis, M. Casimir-Perier, the grandson of King Louis Philippe's Prime Minister of the same name, formed a new Cabinet, M. Dupuy exchanging places with the new Prime Minister by becoming President of the Chamber of Deputies. The reactionaries lost several Senators in the elections on Sunday, January 7, 1894.

On the afternoon of December 9, 1893, an Anarchist named Vaillant suddenly threw an explosive bomb into the midst of the crowded Chamber of Deputies, but fortunately the missile burst in the air, doing little harm. M. Dupuy, by his conspicuous coolness, kept the Chamber to its work and prevented a panic, which might have easily spread through Paris with disastrous results. Vaillant was arrested on the spot, and was afterward tried and convicted, and finally guillotined February 5, 1894.

The execution of Vaillant incensed the Anarchists, who resorted to other outrages in revenge. A week after the execution a bomb was exploded in the Café Terminus, killing several people; but the bomb-thrower, Emile Henri, was arrested, tried, convicted and guillotined. Other Anarchist outrages

in Paris followed; and finally the whole civilized world was shocked by the assassination of President Sadi-Carnot, who was stabbed to death in his carriage in the streets of Lyons, Sunday, June 24, 1894, by Cesario Santo, an Italian Anarchist, who was at once arrested and soon afterward tried, convicted and guillotined. Addresses of sympathy poured into France from all parts of the civilized world. Queen Victoria wrote a touching letter to Madame Carnot, and the British Parliament voted an address; while the young Emperor William II. of Germany greatly impressed French sentiment by generously pardoning two French officers who had been condemned to imprisonment as spies. The remains of the murdered President were honored with an imposing state funeral.

On June 27, 1894, the National Assembly, in Congress, or joint convention, elected M. Casimir-Perier to the Presidency of the French Republic by 451 votes out of 851. Mr. Brisson received 195 votes, M. Dupuy 97, General Février 53, M. Arago 27, and M. Cavaignac 12. The Radicals and Socialists in the Assembly demanded the abolition of the Presidency, and there was a short uproar, but quiet was soon restored.

Several months before his Presidency, May, 1894, M. Casimir-Perier had been forced to resign the office of Prime Minister by a "surprise vote" on trade unionism, whereupon a new Ministry under M. Charles Dupuy was formed. Late in 1894 Captain Dreyfus, a French army officer, was condemned to imprisonment for selling confidential secrets to a foreign power.

Incensed at the criticisms of his administration, President Casimir-Perier resigned January 16, 1895; and several days later the National Assembly, in Congress, or joint convention, elected M. Felix Faure to the Presidency of the French Republic, on the second ballot, amid tumultuous scenes. On the first ballot M. Felix Faure had 244 votes, M. Brisson 338, and M. Waldeck-Rousseau 185, while 21 votes were scattered among other candidates. M. Waldeck-Rousseau then withdrew in favor of M.

Felix Faure, and on the second ballot M. Felix Faure received 438 votes and M. Brisson 363. Amid the tumult which followed the Socialists shouted: "À bas la réaction! Down with the rogues! Down with the robbers! Down with the Reactionaries! To Mazas with them! Vive la Social Revolution!" The members of the Right shouted: "Down with the Commune!"

Upon the resignation of President Casimir-Perier, the Ministry of M. Dupuy resigned, and a new ministry under M. Ribot was formed, after several fruitless efforts of other political leaders to form a Cabinet.

By the treaty between France and Siam in July, 1893, Siam was to evacuate the territory on the left bank of the Mekong river in six months, the territory to be ceded to France. In accordance with this treaty Siam evacuated that territory, in January, 1894, and made the evacuation so complete that she carried away all the inhabitants to her own territories, thus leaving to the French a country without population, and following the example of an ancient tribe who migrated from their country in a body when the great Assyrian king, Sennacherib, conquered it.

In West Africa the French and their native allies in Senegambia defeated their foes in a number of actions during 1893 and 1894. The French cannonaded the village of Niafoumé and killed a hundred natives, because the chief refused to surrender himself, January 23, 1894. But the French met with several disasters. A French detachment under Colonel Bonnier occupied Timbuctoo, January 29, 1894, but was then massacred by the natives. The native allies of the French were annihilated by Zuaregs in the plain of Kabara, December 28, 1894. The accidental conflicts between French and English troops in December, 1893, and January, 1894, have been noticed. A dispute between the French and English about their respective territories in West Africa was settled by treaty in November, 1893. The next year France and Germany came to an agreement about their respective territories in the "Hinterland" of the Cameroons.

Late in 1894 the French in Madagascar became involved in hostilities with the Hovas and Malagasys, with whom they had so often been at war. The Hovas bombarded Tamatave, while French warships bombarded the Hova position there. The French gained some successes. The French government sent an expedition under Generals Duchesne and Metzinger to Madagascar to chastise the Hovas. In the spring of 1895 this expedition defeated the Hovas and advanced against Antananarivo, the capital of the island.

AFFAIRS OF GERMANY.

The general election in Germany, June 12, 1893, returned a majority of thirty-three in the Reichstag for the Emperor, the numbers being two hundred and five supporters of the Emperor and one hundred and seventy-two opponents of his policy. The chief features of the election were the success of the Anti-Semites, or anti-Jewish party, and of the Social Democrats. The Anti-Semites, who had only six members in the preceding Reichstag, elected seventeen members in the new Reichstag; and the Social Democrats, who had thirty-six members in the preceding Reichstag, elected forty-four members in the new Reichstag. The increase in the Social Democratic vote was surprising. One million seven hundred and eighty-six thousand votes were cast for that party, an increase of over three hundred and fifty thousand in three years, while the Anti-Semites gained about two hundred thousand. An unpleasant feature of the election was the sectional division between Northern and Southern Germany, as Bavaria, Württemberg and Baden declared almost unanimously against the Emperor's army bills. Soon after the meeting of the Reichstag the army bills were carried through, and went into operation October 1, 1893, thus increasing the standing army of Germany on a peace footing by seventy thousand men, and raising it to four hundred and seventy-nine thousand men, the increase costing about seventy million marks.

Prince Bismarck, the redoubtable ex-Chancellor, speaking through his organ in the Hamburg press, opposed the bills, but his opposition was directed rather to the Emperor's foreign policy than to his home measures. In the fall of 1893 Prince Bismarck was for a time ill at Kissingen, and the Emperor William II. wrote him a graceful letter offering him the imperial hospitality in a better climate than that of Friedrichsruhe, but the ex-Chancellor declined the offer, and his convalescence proceeded by his own fireside. Early in 1894 a formal reconciliation took place between the young Emperor and the venerable ex-Chancellor, who visited the Emperor at the imperial palace in Berlin on the latter's birthday, January 26, 1894, being welcomed and cheered by the multitude as he drove to the imperial palace.

For some months Germany and Russia had been waging a "tariff war" against each other, each imposing retaliatory duties upon the imports from the other; but both found this policy so disastrous in its effects that they finally agreed to a commercial treaty, in February, 1894, each agreeing to lower the duties on imports from the other, and the treaty was speedily ratified by the German Reichstag. The treaty was distasteful to the Protectionist Agrarian League of Prussia, but the agitation by this league aroused the ire of the Emperor William II., who, in a speech at Königsberg, the seat of the agitation, in September, 1894, declared that "the opposition of the Prussian nobles to their monarch is a monstrous thing;" that he ruled by divine right, like his ancestors, and that it is the duty of the nobility to fall in and help him "in the serious battle against those who threaten the foundations of the state and of society."

The Prussian nobles quailed before their august sovereign, like obedient and dutiful children; but when the question of preparing fresh anti-revolutionary measures came to be faced, the result was a grave crisis, which ultimately led to the resignation of both Count von Caprivi, the German Chancellor, and of Count Eulenberg, the Prussian

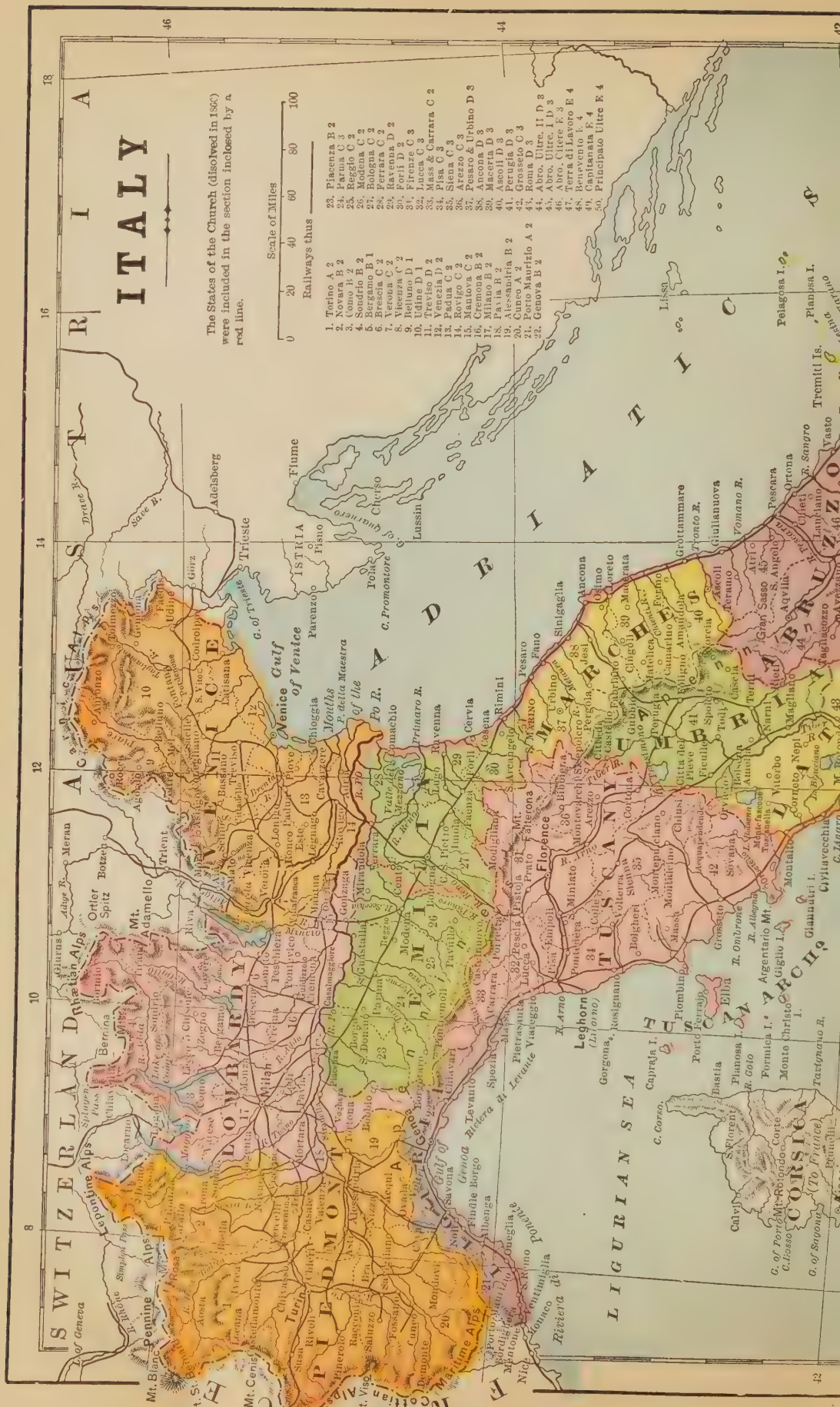
Prime Minister, October 26, 1894. This Ministerial crisis was sudden and generally unexpected. Count von Caprivi, who had served his country with devotion and fidelity for four and a half years, retired to private life a poor man and without any expression of thanks from the Emperor, who had called him to the head of the government after breaking with the Iron Chancellor in March 1890.

Count von Caprivi's successor as Chancellor of the German Empire was Prince Hohenlohe, Governor of Alsace-Lorraine, a Bavarian by birth and a Roman Catholic by religion, but devoted to the Empire. The new Ministry was soon somewhat discredited by an abortive attempt to prosecute some too demonstrative Socialist members of the Reichstag. The German government was badly defeated in the elections in Würtemberg early in February, 1895. The imperial government suffered another bad defeat in the rejection of the anti-revolutionary bills by the Reichstag, May 11, 1895.

The year 1894 was signalized by a treaty between Germany and France respecting the "Hinterland" (hind or back land) of the Cameroons, in Central Africa. The Germans and their native allies in Eastern and Central Africa chastised the tribes who opposed them.

AFFAIRS OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Count Taaffe, the successor of Count Kalnoky as Chancellor of Austria-Hungary, resigned during 1893 because he could not immediately carry out certain remarkable proposals for the reform of the suffrage. In Bohemia the Young Zech party agitated for home rule, and riotous demonstrations occurred at Prague, but the authorities undertook to suppress the agitation with a strong hand, and the leaders of the agitation and the riotous students were arrested, tried and punished during the fall of 1893 and the ensuing winter. Riotous disturbances occurred at these trials, and on several occasions the Court was abruptly broken up by the noisy demonstrations of the defendants and their sympathizers, but the



ITALY

The States of the Church (dissolved in 1860) were included in the section enclosed by a red line.

Scale of Miles

0 20 40 60 80 100

Railways thus

1. Torino A 2
2. Novara B 2
3. Cuneo B 2
4. Sondrio B 2
5. Bergamo B 1
6. Brescia C 2
7. Verona C 2
8. Vicenza C 2
9. Belluno D 1
10. Udine D 1
11. Trieste D 2
12. Treviso D 2
13. Padova C 2
14. Rovigo C 2
15. Treviso D 2
16. Milano B 2
17. Pavia B 2
18. Alessandria B 2
19. Genova B 2
20. Piacenza B 2
21. Parma C 3
22. Reggio C 3
23. Modena C 2
24. Bologna C 2
25. Ferrara C 2
26. Ravenna D 2
27. Forlì D 2
28. Firenze C 3
29. Lucca C 3
30. Pisa C 3
31. Siena C 3
32. Arezzo C 3
33. Grosseto C 3
34. Livorno C 3
35. Massa C 3
36. Carrara C 2
37. Pisa C 3
38. Arezzo C 3
39. Grosseto C 3
40. Livorno C 3
41. Massa C 3
42. Carrara C 2
43. Pisa C 3
44. Livorno C 3
45. Massa C 3
46. Carrara C 2
47. Pisa C 3
48. Livorno C 3
49. Massa C 3
50. Carrara C 2

authorities resorted to strong measures and put the Courts under military protection.

During 1894 Austria-Hungary was much troubled with religious questions. Pressure from high quarters finally induced the House of Magnates to pass a Civil Marriage Bill similar to the laws of other countries of Continental Europe. The long wrangling of parties over this and kindred questions which agitated the Austro-Hungarian Empire finally led to another Ministerial crisis at the very close of 1894, whereupon Dr. Wekerle, the Liberal Chancellor, was forced to resign. There were Anarchist outrages in Austria-Hungary, especially in Bohemia, and a number of Anarchists were brought to trial at Vienna, in February, 1894.

AFFAIRS OF ITALY.

The year 1893 was a year of festivities in Italy. King Humbert and his queen celebrated their silver wedding amid the rejoicings of the people of Rome, and the occasion derived additional splendor from the visit of the Emperor William II. of Germany and his empress. Later in 1893 the British Mediterranean squadron visited Taranto and Spezzia and was received with great cordiality, but the death of Lord Vivian at the same time threw a gloom over the festivities, but it also tended to increase the friendly demonstrations of the Italian court, navy and people toward England.

Bank scandals, financial difficulties and the deplorable condition of Sicily hung like a dark cloud over Italy in 1893. Late in the year the Giolitti Ministry resigned, after holding office for a year, whereupon Signor Crispi formed a new Ministry and again undertook the direction of public affairs.

The year 1894 opened with a violent outbreak in the island of Sicily, in consequence of the extreme poverty of the people, who were instigated to rebellion by Socialist agitators; but the insurrection was finally crushed by Italian troops, and a Sicilian member of the Italian Chamber of Deputies was tried, convicted and sent to prison for a term of years as the responsible author of the outbreak. Extreme poverty and heavy

taxation produced popular unrest throughout Italy in 1894, which was heightened by the Banca Romana scandal, the defendants in which were acquitted after an exciting trial, during which Signor Giolitti endeavored to connect Premier Crispi with the scandal. In June, 1894, an attempt was made to assassinate Premier Crispi in Rome, but the Prime Minister himself caught the assassin, who was sent to prison for twenty years.

In Italian Africa seven thousand Italian troops under General Baratieri defeated ten thousand Abyssinians with the loss of over two hundred killed and wounded, January 13 and 14, 1895. The Abyssinians were afterward dispersed at Senafa, and General Baratieri entered Adigrat, March 25, 1895.

AFFAIRS OF RUSSIA.

Russia experienced another change of the Czars in the fall of 1894. Alexander III. became ill with influenza early in the year—an attack which aroused into activity an incurable disease, which finally ended his life at Livadia, in the Crimea, on November 1, 1894. He was buried at St. Petersburg amid protracted and imposing obsequies. His son and successor, NICHOLAS II., soon afterward married the Princess Alix of Hesse, the Prince and Princess of Wales being present at the wedding as well as at the funeral of the late Czar.

AFFAIRS OF SPAIN.

An international industrial exposition, or world's fair, was held at Madrid in 1892, in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America under the patronage and auspices of Ferdinand and Isabella, Spain's famous sovereigns four centuries ago.

In the fall of 1893 the Anarchists were active in Spain. Pallas threw a bomb on the parade ground at Barcelona, seriously wounding Marshal Martinez Campos; and soon afterward another Anarchist exploded a bomb in a theater in the same city, killing and wounding many men and women of the upper classes; but these assassins were tried,

convicted and garroted. A number of Anarchist outrages also occurred in Madrid in 1893.

In the fall of 1893 the wild Moorish tribes near the Spanish fort of Melilla, in Morocco, attacked the Spanish garrison, and the affair threatened a rupture between Spain and Morocco, as the Sultan of Morocco was slow to render satisfaction because the tribes guilty of the aggression were rebels against his authority; but after several months of negotiation the affair was adjusted, the Moorish Sultan agreeing to give satisfaction to Spain for the aggressive conduct of the rebellious tribes.

The Spaniards under General Parrado defeated the Malay Moslems in Mandano, in the Philippine Islands, March 10, 1895.

Early in 1895 there was another rebellion against Spanish authority in the island of Cuba, and troops were sent from Spain to crush the revolt. The revolted Cubans had agents in the United States who were doing all in their power to further the Cuban cause, but the United States authorities took care to prevent a violation of neutrality laws.

Several newspaper in Madrid charged the military officers in Madrid with cowardice, because they did not go to fight the Cuban rebels. The accused officers resented the charges of the newspapers by raiding and wrecking the offices of the offensive journals. Marshal Martinez Campos, Governor-General of Madrid, restored order in the capital; but General Lopez Dominguez, Minister of War, defended the lawless conduct of the army officers, in the Chamber of Deputies, and demanded that journalists who insulted the army be tried by court-martial for libel. This demand caused the resignation of Señor Sagasta's Ministry and the formation of a Conservative Ministry under Señor Canovas de Castillo, March, 1895.

EVENTS OF OTHER NATIONS.

In July, 1892, General Porfirio Diaz, who had been President of Mexico since 1884, was again reëlected, and began his fourth term in December, 1892.

During 1894 and 1895 the Turks commit-

ted great atrocities and outrages upon the Christians of Armenia, and thus aroused the public sentiment of European nations against the Sultan and his Moslem subjects. England and the other European Powers protested to the Sultan against these outrages, whereupon the Ottoman Porte appointed a commission to investigate the outrages, but no important results were developed by the commission's investigation. In May, 1895, England, France and Russia made a demand upon the Sultan of Turkey for reforms in Armenia, and for the protection of the Christians of that Turkish province. On May 30, 1895, the English, French and Russian Consular officers at Jeddah were attacked by Bedouin Arabs, and the British Vice-Consul was killed and the British and Russian Consuls were wounded. British, French and Russian warships were at once sent to Jeddah. Turkey finally yielded to the demands of the Powers.

The revolution in the Sandwich, or Hawaiian Islands, in January, 1893, which resulted in the overthrow of the native queen and the final establishment of an aristocratic republic, under the Presidency of Sanford B. Dole, has been noticed in the history of the United States. The beaten royalists were very restive under the pretended republican government, and finally in January, 1895, a counter revolution in the interest of the deposed queen was attempted, but the outbreak was speedily crushed by the police and the military, and the leaders were tried by court-martial and sentenced to death, but their sentences were finally commuted to imprisonment. The ex-queen was condemned to five years' imprisonment and fined \$5,000, but was pardoned Feb. 5, 1896.

An international exposition, or world's fair, was held at Antwerp, Belgium, in 1894. Among recent events of 1895 were the annexation of the Congo State, in Central Africa, to the Kingdom of Belgium; the revolt of the natives in Eastern Africa against the Portuguese; the Bedouin revolt against the Sultan of Muscat; the great earthquake at Kuchan, Persia, in which twelve hundred persons perished, January

17, 1895; and the great industrial exhibition at Kioto, Japan, in which there was a creditable display of Japanese manufactures of all kinds—fabrics, textiles, leather, machinery, upholstery, carpets, hosiery, hardware, glassware, chemicals, surgical and scientific instruments.

NAVAL REVOLT IN BRAZIL.

The time for the election of a new President in Brazil was now approaching, and President Floriano Peixoto was seeking reelection in spite of the provision of the Brazilian Constitution which forbade the reelection of a President during his term of office. The President justified his course on the ground that as he had not become President by election, but having only succeeded to the office to fill out the unexpired term of the late President Fonseca, the constitutional provision against the reelection of a President did not apply in his case. But all Brazilians did not accept the very forced construction of the Brazilian Constitution put upon it by President Peixoto, and his veto of a bill passed by the Brazilian Congress rendering any Vice-President who became President ineligible to election as President caused a formidable revolt of the Brazilian navy, which broke out at Rio de Janeiro early in September, 1893, and which endangered the existence of Peixoto's government and even of the Brazilian Republic for five months. The leader of this revolt at first was Rear Admiral Custodio de Mello, and afterwards Admiral da Gama, both of whom successively bombarded the capital for five months during the fall of 1893 and the ensuing winter.

The revolt was effected very quietly a little before midnight on September 5, 1893, when Admiral de Mello boarded the iron-clad *Aquidaban* and took possession of that large battleship without meeting any resistance. Admiral de Mello's men obtained possession of the formidable cruiser *Republica*, two torpedo boats, some other warships and merchant vessels in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, the same night, and thus the standard of rebellion was raised against the

existing government in Brazil by the larger part of the navy of that country.

Early on the morning of the next day the insurgents landed at Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro, seized the naval depot there, and removed a large quantity of artillery, ammunition and supplies to the ships in their possession. Before ten o'clock that morning Admiral de Mello had a fleet of twenty-four ships, among which were twelve iron-clad battleships and five torpedo boats. The twelve battleships were the *Aquidaban*, the *Republica*, the *Trajano*, the *Orion*, the *Javary*, the *Marajó*, the *Marcilio Diaz*, the *Amazonas*, the *Madeira*, the *Sete de Setembro*, the *Iguatemy* and the *Araguary*.

Upon hearing of the revolt, President Peixoto at once summoned his Cabinet and the officials of the war and naval departments, and preparations were made to defend the city against attack from the revolted navy. Detachments of police were sent to the water front to prevent communication with the revolted ships. The Brazilian Congress held secret sessions and the Senate voted in favor of martial law.

The insurgents attempted landings at various points, but were everywhere repulsed. Admiral de Mello called upon the garrison in the fort of Santa Cruz to join in the revolt, but the garrison decidedly refused to take part in the rebellion. The rebel squadron, dispersed over the harbor, was held in check by the forts and could not get out to sea. On September 11 the insurgents were repulsed with great loss in killed and wounded in an attempt to land at Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro; after which the rebel fleet attempted to run past the port of Santa Cruz and the shore batteries to gain the open sea, but was fired upon by the forts and batteries and compelled to return to its former anchorage. The insurgents were afterward repulsed in a second attempt to land.

On September 13, 1893, Admiral de Mello opened a fierce bombardment on Rio de Janeiro, which inflicted considerable damage on the city. The rebels landed at Nictheroy,

seized the arsenal and custom house and silenced the forts in the harbor. The States of Bahia, Pernambuco, Parana and Santa Catharina joined in the rebellion, and the squadron sent by the government to fight the rebels in the State of Rio Grande do Sul declared in favor of Admiral de Mello. The rebels in Rio Grande do Sul defeated the government troops in battle.

Admiral de Mello renewed his blockade of Rio de Janeiro and his bombardment of the city. He was repulsed in an attack on Santos, but completely blockaded that port and captured Desterro. He issued a proclamation accusing President Peixoto of "trying to place Brazil under the rule of an absolute tyranny," and promising to hand the government over to those honorable men who gave freedom to the nation before, if he succeeded in his fight for liberty. A number of members of the Brazilian Congress, on board the rebel warships, issued an address to the Brazilian people accusing President Peixoto and his Cabinet of stealing the public funds, destroying the autonomy of the States and fomenting civil war to further their own ends. These rebel members of Congress gave Admiral de Mello the command of their forces, for the purpose of restoring peace and reëstablishing republican government. The other prominent leaders of the rebellion were Senhor Serzedello and Senhor Ruy Barbosa.

At the close of September, 1893, the fort of San Gabriel, in the State of Para, surrendered to the rebels under General Saraiva with its garrison of six hundred men and fourteen Krupp cannon. The garrison of Fort Villegaignon, on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro, declared in favor of the rebellion.

During the early part of October there was some desultory firing between the rebel fleet and the forts. At the middle of October, Admiral de Mello renewed the bombardment of the Brazilian capital, inflicting much damage on the city and killing people in the streets, thus causing many of the inhabitants to flee from the city. The government forces captured the ironclad *Sete de Setembro*, one of Admiral de Mello's war-

ships, after the vessel had run aground on the coast. The rebels in Rio Grande do Sul defeated the government troops at Quarahy with heavy loss, killing two hundred of them. A few days later the government forces were defeated by the rebels at Ibicuy with the loss of about a thousand killed.

On October 22, 1893, Admiral de Mello established a provisional government at Desterro, and proclaimed one of his captains, Senhor Frederico Lorena, Provincial President of Brazil. Admiral Stanton, commanding United States war vessels in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, saluted Admiral de Mello, for which he was promptly suspended from command by Mr. Herbert, Secretary of the Navy in President Cleveland's Cabinet, and the United States government made ample apology to the Brazilian government for this act of impropriety of an American naval officer toward a friendly government. Admiral Stanton said in his defense that he merely saluted the Brazilian flag, and he appears to have thought that by saluting both parties in the struggle he was literally obeying the orders of his government to observe strict neutrality.

During the latter part of October the rebel fleet and the revolted garrison in Fort Villegaignon bombarded Nictheroy and the harbor forts daily. The rebel fleet met with several reverses, and both the fleet and Fort Villegaignon were badly damaged by the fire from the government forts. The rebel armed steamer *Urano*, when leaving Rio de Janeiro, October 15, on its way to Desterro, was fired upon and forty of her crew were killed. The rebel cruiser *Republica* rammed a transport which was conveying eleven hundred government troops to Santos and five hundred men were drowned.

The rebel provisional government at Desterro, the capital of the State of Santa Catharina, was organizing an army and increasing its navy and obtained cannon and other supplies. Its agents in the United States purchased steamers and steam tugs. President Peixoto's agents were also active in the United States, engaging crews for the government vessels, offering large

monthly pay and additional bounties to all who would enlist in the Brazilian government service, but considerable precaution was necessary to avoid violating the United States neutrality laws.

By the middle of November the revolt against the Peixoto government had spread throughout Brazil, and Pernambuco was declared in a state of siege. The rebels were making progress in the North of Brazil, and bombarded Fort Lage, in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, and a heavy artillery fire was kept up between the government batteries and the rebel batteries, inflicting considerable injury. There was daily skirmishing at Nictheroy.

President Peixoto was making the most vigorous preparations at his command for the defense of his capital, but the financial position of the government was becoming more difficult daily, the national treasury being empty. The foreign ministers at Rio de Janeiro exerted themselves to protect the lives and property of foreign residents, and the United States and the various European powers had warships in the harbor.

About the middle of November, Admiral Saldanha da Gama, Chief of the Naval College, the ablest admiral in Brazil, openly joined the insurgents, carrying with him great sympathy, along with many adherents in the army and navy belonging to the best families in Brazil. The result of Admiral da Gama's action was the placing of the islands of Cobras and Inchadas in the possession of the rebels. Admiral da Gama took command of the insurgent operations before the Brazilian capital, and was the chief leader of the rebellion against the Peixoto administration, thus eclipsing Admiral de Mello, who had been the head of the revolt thus far.

A party of insurgent sailors who landed near Armacao, November 20, were attacked by government troops, who lost thirty-two killed, while five of the rebel sailors were wounded. The rebels met with a great loss in the sinking of the ironclad monitor *Javary* by the fire from the government batteries, November 22, 1893. The firing

of a shell by a government battery at a steam launch flying a white ensign, and having a British commissioned officer and crew on board, brought forth a protest from the British minister at Rio de Janeiro. The British flag was constantly fired upon.

The city of Para revolted late in November, and its artillery and naval forces declared for the insurgents, thus depriving the government of the large revenue which it derived from that city. The rebels at Desterro captured Curitiba, the chief town of the State of Parana, in the latter part of November. The insurgents also defeated the government forces in Rio Grande do Sul. A rebel force of six thousand men marched into the State of São Paulo, and the National Guard of that State refused to offer any opposition to this force.

Early in December, Admiral de Mello sailed southward with the *Aquidaban* and an armed merchant vessel, after a sharp fight with the government forts, but soon returned to Rio harbor. The fighting between the government forts and the insurgent fleet went on daily. The government was continually arresting persons accused of disloyalty, and there were fifteen hundred political prisoners in Brazil early in December, 1893.

Admiral da Gama was daily joined by fresh adherents at the island of Cobras, which was strongly fortified and garrisoned by three hundred sailors. Admiral da Gama issued a manifesto assigning his reasons for joining the revolutionary movement, which were to free his country from tyranny and militarism, the address concluding with these words: "I hope to fulfill my duty, though the end be death. Let others do theirs." The entire medical staff of the navy joined Admiral da Gama, and his influence was very great.

The government troops were repulsed in an attack on Fort Villegaignoon near the middle of December. On December 16 the government troops captured the island of Bom Jesus, after a general engagement, thus depriving the insurgents of their water supply. One thousand government troops

under General Telles was repulsed in an attack upon the rebels on the island of Gubernador, in the bay of Rio de Janeiro, General Telles himself being wounded. In repelling this assault Admiral da Gama lost only seven men wounded, none being killed on his side. The fighting in the harbor went on daily.

President Peixoto was daily becoming more unpopular on account of his arbitrary and despotic course. Fifteen officers and the crew of the guardship *Parahyba*, stationed at Pernambuco, were arrested through news found upon an officer seized on a British steamer seized at Rio de Janeiro. There was no evidence of their intention to join Admiral de Mello, but they were ordered to be shot without trial. Exasperated at the injustice of the sentence, they all shouted at the moment of firing: "Long live Mello!" This produced such an impression on the troops, who obeyed orders reluctantly, that they tried not to hit them, and only five were killed. The troops refused to shoot the remainder, who were then imprisoned. The captain was immediately sent to Rio de Janeiro. The people of Pernambuco were shocked at the brutality of the execution, and were greatly incensed against President Peixoto.

President Peixoto sent orders to the State government of Minas Geraes to arrest the Visconde de Ouro Preto, the head of the monarchist party in Brazil. The State authorities refused point blank to execute the order, thus indicating plainly the state of public feeling in that State. The government suspended the *Gazeta de Noticias*, the only journal showing any fairness toward foreigners at Rio de Janeiro. The government also suspended the *Echo de Br sil*, a French newspaper, and the *Rio News*, an English newspaper with an American editor. The government refused to allow the *London Times* correspondent to establish Red Cross aid for the rebel wounded, on the ground that if cured they would again fight against the government.

On December 9, 1893, the steamer *Parahyba*, flying the Argentine flag, while carrying war material and provisions from Santos

to Rio Grande, was fired upon by the insurgents for refusing to heave to, one man being killed and four wounded, after which she was boarded and seized by the insurgents.

All business at Rio de Janeiro had for some time practically ceased, on account of the bombardment of the city by the rebel fleet. Fort Villegaignon was much injured by the bombardment from the government batteries. A severe engagement occurred at Itajahy, north of Desterro, late in December, four hundred being killed. A general engagement between the hostile fleets in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro occurred on Sunday, December 24, 1893. The insurgent vessel *Meteoro* was captured and her crew shot.

At the close of December, 1893, the Brazilian government appeared to have made little headway in the suppression of the naval revolt, which seemed as formidable as ever. The bombardment of Rio de Janeiro by the insurgent fleet under Admiral da Gama continued vigorously during January, 1894. On January 16 the insurgents were repulsed in one attack on the government batteries at Nictheroy, but they captured a government battery on the same day and turned it against the government forces.

The *Aquidaban* opened a heavy fire upon Rio de Janeiro. After a sharp fight the government troops on the island of Mucangue surrendered. The insurgents occupied the town of Paranagua after a severe fight and the government garrison surrendered. General Lima, the government commander and Governor of the State of Parana, fled to Rio Paulo. The Brazilian government continued to arrest rebel sympathizers.

In the meantime American vessels were fired upon by the rebel warships for attempting to break the blockade. Admiral Benham, the United States naval commander at Rio de Janeiro, protested against the reckless firing of the insurgent war vessels, and demanded that forty-eight hours' notice be given before opening a bombardment upon the city. Admiral da Gama defiantly answered that he would bombard the city when-

ever he saw fit, with or without notice. The firing upon American merchant vessels engaged in loading a cargo of coffee led to a conflict between Admiral Benham and Admiral da Gama, musket shots being fired on both sides, January 29, 1894. Admiral da Gama offered to surrender to Admiral Benham, but the American admiral refused to accept any surrender, as he did not want to interfere in the domestic struggle, but only to defend the rights and interests of American citizens. Admiral Benham was sustained by President Cleveland and his Cabinet and by the American people.

The conflict between Admiral da Gama and the United States navy inflicted a blow upon the Brazilian naval revolt from which it never recovered, and, though the insurrection lasted several months longer, the insurgents gradually lost ground after that occurrence.

Admiral de Mello organized a provisional government at Curitiba, in the State of Parana, and the government forces were defeated there early in February, 1894. The rebels repulsed an attack on Armacã, near Nictheroy, February 9, 1894, and Admiral da Gama was wounded. The government forces were defeated at Omru with the loss of five hundred and fifty killed and wounded. The State of Parana was conquered by the government forces after some fighting in February, 1894.

A plot for the assassination of President Peixoto was punished by the military execution of the accused, who were shot, and their property was confiscated.

Late in February, 1894, the government battery at Ponto Madana sunk the insurgent transport *Mercurio*, several of the crew being killed by the bursting of a boiler as the vessel went down. The government batteries at Nictheroy sunk the insurgent steamer *Jupiter*, the crew perishing with the sinking of the vessel. An explosion on the insurgent warship *Venus* caused the death of thirty-three of the officers and crew and wounded fifty.

The revolt in the State of Rio Grande do Sul was spreading and the insurgents en-

tered Santa Anna. The insurgents had complete control of the States of Parana, Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do Sul.

The commander of the British steamer *Nasmyth* solicited the aid of the commander of the British squadron at Rio de Janeiro in order to be able to take in a fresh supply of water. The commander refused to grant the request, whereupon the captains of the *Nasmyth* and some other British merchant vessels in the harbor applied to Admiral Benham, the United States commander, for protection, which the American admiral at once granted, and the British seamen landed under American protection.

In the Presidential election throughout the United States of Brazil, March 1, 1894, Dr. Prudente de Moraes, a large landholder, and an ex-President of the Brazilian Senate, was elected President of the Republic, and Senhor Victorino Pereira, a prominent lawyer, was chosen Vice-President. There was no organized opposition to these candidates.

President Peixoto reestablished martial law until April 30. He also issued an address providing for the increase of the regular army of Brazil and for the trial by court-martial of persons accused of treason against the Republic.

The Church party now supplied Admiral de Mello with funds to carry on the rebellion, as he had promised the aid of the government in restoring the Roman Catholic Church to its former powerful position in Brazil, in the event of the success of the revolt.

The government troops defeated the rebels in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, killing four hundred insurgents and taking many prisoners and cannon; but the insurgents defeated the government troops at São Paulo.

The naval revolt collapsed as soon as the government prepared to strike a vigorous blow. On March 10, 1894, the government fleet arrived off Rio de Janeiro, and the next morning the government informed the foreign ministers at the Brazilian capital that military operations would be begun against the insurgents in the harbor. The

government also issued a decree asking the inhabitants of the capital to leave the city for their own safety. This was done, and the city was almost deserted. On March 13 the government forts opened fire on the rebel forts and the rebel fleet, but the rebels did not reply and soon afterward surrendered. Admiral da Gama took refuge on board a Portuguese man-of-war, after sending a message to President Peixoto, offering to surrender the insurgent fleet and forts, with all the prisoners in his possession, on condition that he and his officers be allowed to retire from the country and that the lives of the insurgent soldiers and sailors be spared. President Peixoto refused to accept these conditions, and demanded an unconditional surrender of the insurgents.

The insurgent officers took refuge on board the French and Portuguese warships, and the French vessels put to sea with a number of these refugee officers on board just before the entrance of the government fleet. Admiral da Gama was on board a Portuguese vessel. President Peixoto requested the Portuguese admiral to surrender Admiral da Gama and the other refugee insurgent officers on board the two Portuguese warships, promising that they would be tried by the ordinary tribunal; but the Portuguese admiral refused to comply with the President's request, and sailed to Buenos Ayres on the afternoon of Sunday, March 11, 1894, with Admiral da Gama and seventy other refugee insurgent officers on board. The Portuguese government refused to surrender the refugees to the Brazilian government, but informed Admiral da Gama that he and his companions could only be landed on Portuguese territory under conditions that would prevent their returning to Brazil to take part in the revolt. The Portuguese transports sailed from Buenos Ayres for the island of Ascension with nearly two hundred refugees late in April, but Admiral da Gama and two hundred and twenty others escaped to Montevideo. Many of them recrossed into Brazil.

Great Britain and Italy recommended that the asylum obtained by the insurgent

officers on board the Portuguese vessels be respected, and requested the United States to join them in that recommendation, but the United States government refused to interfere on the ground that Admiral da Gama was a rebel, and resolved to adhere to a policy of non-intervention.

The escape of the Brazilian refugees from the Portuguese vessels to Montevideo caused a diplomatic rupture between Brazil and Portugal. President Peixoto broke off diplomatic relations with Portugal by giving the Portuguese minister at Rio de Janeiro his passports and by recalling the Brazilian minister from Lisbon. The Portuguese government endeavored to give satisfaction to Brazil by dismissing the officers who allowed the refugees to escape. Portugal solicited the mediation of Great Britain in her dispute with Brazil, and it was many months before diplomatic relations were restored between Brazil and Portugal.

The termination of the naval revolt at Rio de Janeiro caused the greatest joy among the inhabitants of that capital, crowds thronging the streets on the day of the surrender and shouting: "Viva Peixoto!" But the surrender of Admiral da Gama's fleet did not end the struggle on land, and Admiral de Mello, with his flagship, the *Aquidaban*, was at Ilha Grande. About sixty men of the rebel force surrendered, the rest having escaped. President Peixoto liberated five hundred rebel prisoners.

The insurgents in the South held out and fortified their positions on the frontier of the State of Rio Grande do Sul. The insurgents in that State under General Saraiva captured the fortress of Itavarea with its garrison of three thousand men. The insurgents had four thousand troops in the State of Parana preparing to invade São Paulo, and two thousand for the defense of Parana itself.

General Saraiva refused to acknowledge the authority of the provisional government at Desterro. He and all other revolutionary leaders, except Admiral de Mello, recognized Senhor Silveira Martins as the revolutionary chief. Senhor Martins declined to recognize

the provisional government, which they declared abolished, a triumvirate being established instead, consisting of Dr. West, Dr. Ferreira Mello and Senhor Marceil.

The government candidates for Congress in the State of Pernambuco were defeated by the Autonomists, but the Autonomist leaders were still in prison and the State was in the control of the government.

The government transport *Itaipu* captured the rebel tug *Santa Luzia* at sea. Martial law still continued at Rio de Janeiro, but few prisoners were shot and few foreigners were arrested.

Admiral de Mello was proclaimed head of the provisional government at Desterro. The government troops moved southward in São Paulo and the insurgents retreated before them. The rebel general Selgado was defeated. Early in April an insurgent torpedo boat and four transports landed four thousand men at Rio Grande, but this force was defeated with the loss of three hundred and fifty killed and wounded.

The naval revolt in Brazil was fully ended in the latter part of April, 1894, when the *Aquidaban* was disabled by a torpedo and abandoned, and when Admiral de Mello with the remainder of the rebel squadron surrendered to the Argentine authorities as political refugees, April 19, 1894. About eleven hundred of the insurgents were brought from Castillos, on the east coast of Uruguay, to Montevideo, in a destitute condition.

A number of skirmishes occurred in Rio Grande do Sul in April and May, 1894. Finally the government army under General Lima completely defeated the rebel army under General Saraiva with the loss of over a thousand men, near Passo Fundo, in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, June 27, 1894.

A year later (June, 1895), Admiral Saldanha da Gama, who had in the meantime escaped from Montevideo and become one of the rebel leaders in Rio Grande do Sul, committed suicide after being signally defeated by the government troops.

Four other South American republics were disturbed by civil war during this pe-

riod. Early in September, 1893, when Admiral de Mello's revolt broke out in Brazil, a revolt broke out in Argentina. The rebels in the province of Tucuman attacked the barracks of the provincial capital and seized ammunition, and desultory fighting followed for several days, both sides being reinforced. The national troops fraternized with the rebels and imprisoned the governor. The rebels in the province of Santa Fé were defeated after two days' fighting, and an iron-clad taken up the Rosario by the rebels was captured, and the revolt was soon crushed. In 1894 Peru, Colombia and Venezuela were disturbed by rebellion and civil war. In 1895 Ecuador was distracted by similar troubles.

THE CHINESE-JAPANESE WAR.

In the meantime Japan had been making great progress in the adoption of Western civilization, but there was still a conservative party which adhered to the old traditions. In 1877 a formidable rebellion headed by the daimyo Saigo broke out at Satsuma and Choshu to check the Europeanizing of Japan, but the rebellion was crushed after desperate fighting. Among great Japanese, Count Saigo, Minister of Marine and Admiral of the Fleet, and Generals Oyama, Kawakami and Kabayama are from Satsuma, while Field Marshal Yamagata, Count Ito, the Premier, and Count Inouye, the other Chief Minister, are from Choshu.

The old rivalry between Japan, the representative of Western civilization in the far East, and China, the champion of the old civilization of Fohi and Confucius, broke out into a fierce and bloody war during the summer of 1894—a war which lasted about nine months and which was characterized by uninterrupted victory on the side of Japan, with her forty million people, and the utter humiliation of China with her four hundred million population. Such was the result of the vigorous, progressive civilization of the smaller of the two great empires of the Orient in its contest with the old, effete civilization of the larger of these empires with its tenfold greater population and its

fiftyfold more territory. The new triumphed over the old—the modern over the past.

China, which has so stubbornly rejected Western civilization, has been taught that she has lived in the past. In an incredibly brief space of time the defenses of the great Chinese Empire have been shown to be rotten, while Japan has proved herself to be on a level with the highest European standards in organization, in science, in discipline and in military spirit. For many years past the position of the Mikado's government, face to face with an intractable Parliamentary opposition, has been extremely difficult. The lower chamber, or popular branch of the Japanese Parliament, has frequently refused to vote supplies, and the Mikado and his Ministry have repeatedly been obliged to strain their constitutional powers. A particularly acute crisis in December, 1893, and January, 1894, was ended by a dissolution of Parliament; but a general election in April, 1894, left the Mikado and his Cabinet at the mercy of their opponents, who suffered but slight loss in the elections. In this emergency the Mikado and his Ministers resolved to gain popularity and strength by the old device of resorting to foreign war.

In May, 1894, a month after the general elections, public opinion in Japan was intensely excited by the murder of a Korean rebel politician at Shanghai, China, with Chinese connivance. The murdered Korean rebel's intrigues in his own country had been favored and fostered by Japan. In June, 1894, a month later, rebellion broke out in the Kingdom of Korea; and the Chinese Emperor, as suzerain of the little kingdom, undertook the suppression of the rebellion in his tributary kingdom. About the same time the Japanese Parliament was again dissolved, and the Mikado and his Ministers found themselves with a free hand and a considerable support of public sentiment behind them. In July, 1894, Japan sent troops to Korea, and Japanese warships were in Korean waters. The Korean port of Chemulpo was occupied by a Japanese garrison, and Seoul, the Korean capital, was

garrisoned by six thousand Japanese troops. Thus a state of war between China and Japan actually existed by the close of July, 1894.

The Chinese Emperor resolved to sustain his suzerainty over the Kingdom of Korea, which had been tributary to China for several centuries. This Chinese supremacy over Korea had always been a source of rivalry between China and Japan; and in 1874, twenty years before the recent war, a war was threatened between the two great Oriental empires, but was finally averted by diplomacy and by the mediation of the great European powers, which exerted their good offices to prevent the kindling of the flames of conflict in Eastern Asia, and peace was preserved for a score of years longer.

Early in July, 1894, Japan summoned the King of Korea to relinquish the suzerainty of China, to declare independence of China, to accept Japanese protection and to dismiss the Chinese Resident. Three thousand more Japanese troops were sent to Seoul. Japan then had ten thousand troops in Korea, consisting of infantry, cavalry and artillery. Li Hung Chang sent twenty battalions of Chinese troops by sea to Korea to oppose the Japanese. Russia and England endeavored to mediate between the two great Oriental powers for the preservation of peace, Russia urging both China and Japan to withdraw their troops from Korea.

Civil war had actually broken out in Korea about the middle of May, 1894. The rebels against the Korean king had possession of one entire province. Korea had been distracted by insurrections of the Tonghak, a reform party, for three years. In July a number of Christians were massacred.

Japan continued her warlike preparations. Japanese pickets and detachments were posted along the great northern road from China, and held the principal pass, Ping Yang, in force. The Chinese troops remained where they were originally landed, near the seat of the recent Korean rising, sixty miles south of Chemulpo.

The Japanese minister now made further demands upon the Korean king, including

the reform of civil government, the development of the resources of the country, including railway and telegraph concessions and the employment of Japanese capital in industry, and reform in the military system, providing for internal and external security. The Japanese minister also required the Korean king to abjure his allegiance to China. The Japanese government refused to withdraw its troops from Korea.

On July 24, 1894, the Korean troops, instigated by the Chinese Resident, attacked the Japanese garrison at the palace of Seoul, but were defeated after spirited fighting. The six thousand Korean troops at Seoul were armed with several Gatling guns. Twelve thousand Chinese troops despatched from China in Chinese transports effected a landing in Korea. Li Hung Chang had thirty thousand troops in his camp at Tien-tsin. The Japanese captured the King of Korea, July 23.

On July 25, 1894, the Japanese cruiser *Naniwa* sunk the Chinese transport *Kowshing* with thirteen hundred Chinese soldiers on board, in Korean waters, about forty miles off Chemulpo, thus creating a profound sensation throughout the civilized world. Captain von Hanneken, the commander of the *Kowshing*, miraculously escaped and arrived at Chemulpo, July 28, in a Korean fishing boat, and one hundred and fifty of the Chinese soldiers on board reached a rock, but over a thousand perished in the waters with the sunken vessel. The Japanese vessel continued discharging broadsides into the *Kowshing* and fired upon the Chinese troops struggling in the water. The Chinese vessel fired to the last, and went down with her colors flying. Some of the Chinese fired upon their own people, who tried to escape by swimming, determined that all should die together.

The Japanese government, upon being informed that the *Kowshing* was a British vessel chartered by the Chinese government to carry troops, at once spontaneously apologized to the British Chargé d'Affaires, and the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs declared that if, after thorough investigation, the Japanese were found to be in the

wrong the Japanese government were prepared to make full reparation.

On July 29, 1894, the Japanese under General Oshima gained a decisive victory over twenty-eight hundred Chinese at Chanhon, capturing the Chinese intrenchments, the Chinese losing over five hundred men killed and wounded, and the Japanese only seventy-five. A few days later the Chinese under General Yeh were routed with the loss of five hundred killed and wounded, thus giving the Japanese possession of Seikwan and Asan, or Yashan.

The Emperor of China issued an edict bidding his troops to "rout these pestilent Japanese out of their lairs," and Li Hung Chang declared that China would fight to the bitter end. The Chinese placed an order in Germany for four torpedo boats, and Chinese agents ordered twenty-five thousand army rifles from New England manufacturers.

On August 1, 1894, the Japanese government declared to the foreign ambassadors and ministers at Tokio that a state of war existed between Japan and China. The Japanese army and navy reserves were called out. The Chinese residents in Japan were fleeing in great numbers. Japan and China issued formal declarations of war against each other.

In the meantime a Chinese army of twenty thousand men marched into Korea from Mantchooria. The Japanese attacked and maltreated Chinese residents at Kobe, and the Chinese at Taku openly insulted members of the Japanese embassy returning from Peking. Li Hung Chang sent a personal message to the Japanese minister regretting that the Chinese soldiery so far forgot themselves. The riotous soldiers were punished. Japanese residents in China were mobbed, but the police tried to protect them.

On August 11, 1894, a large Japanese fleet exchanged a few shots with the Chinese forts on the Straits of Pecheelee. Both China and Japan were sending reinforcements to their armies in Korea. Twenty thousand Japanese were marching on Seoul. On August 17, 1894, the Chinese under General T'io attacked and routed Japanese

detachments at Ping Yang, and the next day at Chungho. On September 6 a large body of Chinese cavalry were routed by the Japanese, who captured the Chinese intrenchments and a quantity of stores and ammunition, the Chinese retreating to Ping Yang, after losing over four hundred killed and wounded, and the Japanese losing less than one hundred. The Koreans routed two thousand Japanese marching on Seoul with a loss of twelve hundred men. On September 13 a Japanese column from Pong-San, making a reconnoissance in force, was fired upon by the Chinese forts.

Field-Marshal Yamagata prepared to reduce Ping Yang, and at dawn on September 15, 1894, the Japanese opened a cannonade upon the Chinese fortifications. In the afternoon the Japanese infantry took part in the fight. The Chinese replied vigorously to the Japanese fire. The firing was renewed at intervals during the night. Before daybreak, Sunday, September 16, 1894, the Japanese renewed their attacks, assailing the Chinese intrenchments in front and rear in three columns, sixty thousand strong. The unsuspecting Chinese were taken utterly unawares and fell into a panic, being completely surrounded by their foes and cut down by hundreds. After half an hour's fight, this night attack gave the Japanese possession of Ping Yang. Of the twenty thousand Chinamen defending Ping Yang very few escaped death or capture. Whole regiments surrendered after the retreat of a detachment of two thousand panic-stricken Chinese had been cut off. The Chinese loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was seventeen thousand. General Tso Fonk Wai, commander of the Chinese Mantchoorian army, was mortally wounded and captured. The Chinese Generals Tsa Paok Woi, Wei Jink Woi and Sei Kinlin were also taken prisoners. The Japanese lost over seven hundred killed and wounded. The battle was decisive and the Japanese victory was complete. They captured all the Chinese stores, provisions, arms and ammunition and hundreds of colors. Field-Marshal Yamagata telegraphed the news of his victory to

the Mikado at Hiroshima, and was congratulated by His Majesty. Field-Marshal Yamagata issued an address to his troops commending them for their bravery.

On Sunday, September 16, 1894, while the Chinese army was annihilated at Ping Yang, the Chinese fleet of eighteen vessels was attacked at the mouth of the Yalu river, while covering the landing of troops. These troops comprised the Second Chinese Army Corps, consisting entirely of Hunanese. Before the Chinese transports had landed all the troops, the Japanese fleet of thirteen ships attacked them. The Chinese battleships *Chih-Yuen* and *King-Yuen* were blown up and sunk by torpedoes, after fighting desperately. The Chinese steel cruisers *Chao-Yung* and *Yang-Wei* were driven ashore and set on fire by Japanese shells and burned. The Chinese warship *Chen-Yuen* and the flagship *Ting-Yuen* were seriously damaged. Three Japanese cruisers *Matsushima* and *Yoshino* and the Japanese transport *Saikiomaru* were badly damaged. The fighting was desperate on both sides. The Chinese loss in killed and wounded was about fifteen hundred men. Among the wounded were Admiral Ting and Captain von Hanneken. The Japanese also lost heavily in killed and wounded.

In the meantime the Viceroy Li Hung Chang was officially disgraced by the Chinese Emperor, through the instrumentality of the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Grand Council of the Celestial Empire, making him responsible for the disasters to the Chinese arms in Korea, thus making him the scapegoat for its blunders.

In the meantime thirty-two Japanese transports had arrived at Chemulpo, convoyed thither by the Japanese fleet, bringing seven thousand Japanese troops, three thousand coolies, two thousand pack horses, pontoons and mountain guns. The Japanese government decided to follow up its victories and to prosecute the war with all possible vigor before the opening of winter. A second Japanese army, thirty thousand strong, was mobilized at Hiroshima, under the command of Count Oyama, the Japanese

Minister of War. The national enthusiasm over the recent Japanese victories in Korea was unbounded. The war loan, which was raised entirely in Japan, was subscribed three times over. The Empress, as chief patroness of the Japanese Red Cross Society, personally set the example of preparing lint and bandages for the wounded, in which humane work Her Majesty was actively supported by all the ladies of the Japanese Court, whose handiwork was to be distributed between the wounded Japanese and Chinese soldiers without distinction. The Japanese Parliament was convened for an extraordinary session at Hiroshima on October 15, 1894.

The Chinese rapidly fortified the city of Moukden, the capital of the Chinese dependency of Mantchooria, where the Chinese Emperor was believed to have had twelve hundred million dollars of treasure accumulated in the course of two centuries. Thousands of Chinese soldiers were poured into the city to defend it at all hazards against any force which General Kawakami, the generalissimo of the Japanese armies, might send against it. The naval battle in the Yalu river practically annihilated the naval power of China, and, in connection with the land battle of Ping Yang, virtually placed the Celestial Empire at the mercy of the triumphant army and navy of Japan.

The remnant of the vanquished Chinese army, in its flight from the disastrous field of Ping Yang, acted the part of bandits and robbers, pillaging and burning villages, destroying farms and burning the stored produce, and massacring the natives who resisted these outrageous acts.

An imperial decree in China appointed Prince Kung, the Emperor's uncle, and the Presidents of the Tsung-li-Yamen and of the Admiralty, as a special committee to conduct the military operations. This decree was suggested by Li Hung Chang, and was vigorously supported by the Empress-Dowager. The news that the imperial treasure and the dynastic archives at Moukden had been removed to a safer place inland produced a bad effect at Peking.

An imperial decree in China assigned General Sung to the command of the Pei-Yang Army Corps in Mantchocria and also to the command of the Mantchoo militia, except the Kirin division, which was left under the command of the Tartar general. The other Chinese generals were ordered to obey General Sung on pain of death.

The Chinese Emperor and his Councilors were in a state of alternate terror and indignation at the possibility of a Japanese invasion. The Emperor declared that the recent defeats could have been caused by incompetence and corruption only, and the enemies of Li Hung Chang sedulously encouraged this mood of the Emperor. The disorganization of the Chinese military affairs was appalling, and the corruption of the Chinese officials was astounding. There was no clothing and only scanty food for the Chinese troops. Guns, rifles and ammunition which had been bought and paid for could neither be found nor traced. Chaos and terror prevailed everywhere. The great Chinese camp between Tien-tsin and Taku was filled with raw levies. Disorders were rampant, and the daily beheadings of delinquents did not produce any improvement in discipline. There were no rifles or muskets for these troops.

No foreigners ventured near the Chinese camp unless they were amply guarded. Most Europeans went to the coast towns, where they were under the protection of the warships of their respective nations. Foreigners were constantly menaced with violence, and the authorities were unable to keep the mobs in check. All the European women and children in Hankow were sent to Shanghai for safety. The European men, traders and officials alike, formed a volunteer corps to defend their lives and property. The native hostility to foreigners was daily growing stronger. Many Chinese merchants also migrated to the coast towns, as they felt more secure near foreigners than with their own countrymen. The Viceroys feared that the mobs would break out into armed rebellion, and fortifications were thrown up at Woo-chang, opposite Hankow, in antici-

pation of a serious attack upon the city. The European powers acted in accord for the protection of their subjects in China. England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States reinforced their squadrons in Chinese waters.

Cheng, nephew of Li Hung Chang and the chief magistrate of Tien-tsin, was officially disgraced after an investigation conducted by Li Hung Chang himself, revealing the fact that Cheng had bought three hundred thousand obsolete rifles from German agents for two taels each, while he charged the imperial treasury nine taels each for them. The cartridges were of inferior quality and of various patterns, and Cheng made a large profit from them also. Li Hung Chang sent for his nephew, who did not deny his guilt. Li Hung Chang ended a strong interview by slapping his nephew's face, and Cheng was at once removed from his position.

Wang Seng Tsao, the late Chinese minister to Japan, was reprimanded by his government for his ignorance of the Japanese designs against Korea. The Chinese Emperor now took matters into his own hands, and precautionary measures were taken at all the ports. The Chinese closed Foochow and put Canton in a state of defense. Prince Kung was mainly occupied in providing for the defense of Peking and its approaches. Li Hung Chang sent eight thousand men, well armed and disciplined, to Peking, but his best regiments were with him at Tien-tsin. Two thousand Chinese troops in Korea deserted for want of pay and joined the enemy. The Chinese soldiers lived off the country they happened to be in and reduced it to a desert, thus obliging the inhabitants to abandon their homes for want of the means of subsistence.

In the meantime Japanese spies were detected in China, and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded. These spies were discovered cutting telegraph wires and laying torpedos along the coast.

The Japanese Parliament was convened in extraordinary session, October 15, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Mikado established

his headquarters, and remained in session one week, during which it authorized war loans amounting to one hundred million yen and a total war expenditure of one hundred and fifty million yen. Count Ito, the Japanese Premier, addressed both Houses.

The Japanese occupied Wi-ju, October 8, 1894, after a slight encounter with the Chinese, who fled precipitately after a feeble resistance, and crossed the Yalu river, after losing about a hundred men out of a force of two thousand. The Japanese steadily advanced on Port Arthur, in the peninsula of Liao-Tung, and a Japanese force invaded Mantchooria from Korea. A Japanese detachment of sixteen hundred men which crossed the Yalu river above Wi-ju captured a Chinese intrenchment after brief fighting, the Chinese losing twenty killed and wounded and the Japanese none, October 24, 1894. The next day the Japanese gained a signal victory at Hoosan, near Kiu-lien-tcheng, after three hours' fighting. The Chinese force, numbering thirty-five hundred men, was utterly routed and scattered, with the loss of over two hundred killed, while the Japanese lost a little over a hundred killed and wounded. Before dawn on October 26 the Japanese army under Field-Marshal Yamagata attacked sixteen thousand Chinese under General Sung at Kiu-lien-tcheng. The Chinese fled, and the victorious Japanese next captured Andong with twenty cannon, besides rifles and ammunition. The Chinese also took Tatung-Kao. These Chinese defeats produced consternation at Tien-tsin.

A Chinese court-martial convicted Generals Yeh and Wei of cowardice and neglect of duty in retreating from Ping-Yang without justification, thereby leaving General Tso and his Kirin troops alone to fight the Japanese armies, and both generals were degraded from military rank and deprived of honors. General Wei was afterward beheaded.

The Chinese Board of War made great efforts to obtain more troops for the defense of Peking. The Viceroy of Nankin, who had already raised twenty thousand Huna-

nese troops, was imperatively ordered to send several additional battalions overland from Chinkiang to Tien-tsin. He accordingly collected several thousand men from various garrisons, but they refused to go unless their three months' arrears of pay had been handed them.

In the meantime the Great European Powers made efforts to bring about peace. Their ministers in China met the Tsung-li-Yamen on November 3, 1894, to hear what the Chinese government had to say respecting the critical Chinese situation. Prince Kung calmly and frankly avowed China's impotence and her inability to withstand the Japanese attack, and appealed to the Powers to intervene for peace. He stated that China was willing to relinquish her suzerainty over Korea and to pay a war indemnity. The foreign ministers promised to use their influence in procuring the mediation of their respective governments in favor of peace. The United States also endeavored to mediate.

The dream of the Japanese nation, flushed with victory, was the complete submission of China to any terms which Japan chose to dictate. The Japanese were so intoxicated with their successes that they now considered themselves invincible and powerful enough to defy any interference from any or all of the European Powers.

The Japanese entered Feng-huang-tcheng on October 31, the Chinese having fled, their generals going to Moukden. The inhabitants of the captured town, hating the violence and rapacity of the Chinese, welcomed the Japanese army. Thus the Chinese defense of Moukden collapsed, and the Japanese invaders marched westward, though cold weather had set in and snow had fallen in Mantchooria. The Japanese here took no prisoners, but they disarmed and dispersed the Chinese soldiers wherever found. By Field-Marshal Yamagata's orders, the peaceable inhabitants were treated with the utmost consideration, all food purchased being paid for at a recognized scale, and laborers being paid daily for any extra help required, the result of

which was that the Japanese camp was thronged with Chinese peasants offering produce, while more Chinese laborers were asking for work than could be accommodated. The Japanese established a local government at An-tung for the administration of the Chinese territory occupied by the Japanese, and the taxes leviable on the Chinese were remitted for a year. The Chinese there welcomed the Japanese with open arms. The Japanese reputation for humanity in paying for supplies did the Japanese immense service, and their conduct was contrasted with that of the Chinese troops, who made war in the ancient style, and were dreaded by the people and officials, alike in victory and in defeat.

A Japanese army of forty thousand men under Marshal Oyama left Hiroshima and landed on Chinese territory in the peninsula of Liao-Tung without meeting any opposition, captured fifteen timber-laden Chinese junks, blockaded Port Arthur and Talien Bay, completely invested Port Arthur before the end of October, and captured one of the forts at Port Arthur and defeated the Chinese in a spirited engagement. The Chinese troops at Port Arthur, Kinchou and Talien Bay numbered thirteen thousand men. The Chinese situation at Port Arthur was now extremely critical, and the Chinese Pe-Yang squadron in the port was caught in a trap. Early in November the Japanese established a complete cordon around Port Arthur and captured the two outermost forts on the land side.

The Japanese took Kinchou and Talienwan on November 8, the Chinese garrisons offering little resistance and fleeing in the direction of Port Arthur. Two thousand Chinese troops under General Shui were overpowered by the Japanese east of Kinchou on November 8, after two days' fighting. The next day the Japanese routed the Chinese at Namquan Pass, twenty-five miles from Port Arthur. At Talienwan the Japanese captured eighty cannon, large stores of ammunition and one steamer.

Field-Marshal Yamagata continued his victorious march in Mantchooria, his various

divisions defeating the Chinese detachments in several engagements. The defeated Chinese troops suffered from cold and hunger. Field-Marshal Yamagata sent a brigade under General Osako to disperse six thousand Chinese troops under General Ma at Siu-Yen, but the Chinese fled on Sunday night, November 18, without offering any resistance, and the Japanese quietly occupied Siu-Yen, and took possession of the five cannon which the Chinese had abandoned in their flight. The Chinese retreated toward Hai-tcheng.

The second Japanese army under Marshal Oyama marched toward Port Arthur in two divisions by different routes. On November 19 a Chinese force strongly intrenched in the passes north of Port Arthur was attacked, and, after desperate fighting, was driven from its intrenchments, fleeing to Port Arthur. Both sides suffered severe losses. On the same day the Japanese captured a fort two miles west of Port Arthur. On November 20 the right division of Marshal Oyama's army had a skirmish with the Chinese, who retired in good order. The same division captured the fort and village of Shui-sy-Ching.

The next morning the right division carried the low range of hills northwest of Port Arthur with a rush, and then cannonaded and bombarded a strong redoubt a thousand yards distant. The Chinese garrison returned the fire briskly, but the Japanese infantry advanced in the face of a well-directed shell fire without faltering, and before nine o'clock carried the redoubt by storm in the most gallant style. The Chinese resisted fiercely for several minutes and then fled toward the dockyard.

In the meantime the left division of Marshal Oyama's army had been engaged fiercely with the Chinese on the southeast side of Port Arthur. After advancing over the hills this division was raked by a heavy fire from three forts connected by trenches strongly held, and a heavy duel ensued between the Japanese artillery and the heavy Chinese cannon in the forts, while the Japanese infantry meanwhile advanced all along the line, taking advantage of the brushwood

and other cover. The forts were finally carried by assault, the Chinese garrisons being driven from the three forts after making the most gallant defense.

By evening of the same day, November 21, 1894, Port Arthur was in the possession of the Japanese, but the Chinese still held ten redoubts on the coast line, armed with about twenty cannon. Early on the morning of the 23d (November, 1894), these works were captured by the Japanese without serious loss on their part. Twenty-three Japanese torpedo boats suddenly rushed through the entrance to Port Arthur, thus surprising the Chinese and distracting their attention while the land attack was being delivered.

Thus the Japanese captured Port Arthur after several days of continuous fighting. They found eighty cannon and mortars in the captured forts and redoubts and many more in the dockyards. They also obtained possession of an immense quantity of ammunition, besides completely equipped torpedo stores and large quantities of rice and beans. All the Chinese vessels, factories and docks were taken intact and were ready for use. The Chinese forces at Port Arthur numbered about twenty thousand men, and lost more than a thousand men, while the Japanese lost about two hundred and fifty killed and wounded. Most of the Chinese escaped from Port Arthur on the night of November 21.

In revenge for the mutilation and decapitation of a number of Japanese prisoners in the hands of the Chinese, the triumphant Japanese troops gave no quarter to their vanquished foes during the storming of the defenses of Port Arthur, and shot many Chinese soldiers who attempted to escape. The Japanese also pillaged the town and killed nearly every man in it. They also committed atrocities on Chinese prisoners, who were pinioned, stripped, shot, hacked with knives, disemboweled and dismembered.

The capture of Port Arthur was followed by a victory of the Japanese arms in Mantchooria. The first Japanese army under

Field-Marshal Yamagata, in its advance in that Chinese dependency, defeated the Chinese near Mo-thieu-ling. The Japanese lost about forty killed and wounded, and the Chinese over two hundred. Moukden was evacuated by the foreign residents early in November. The city was also deserted by its inhabitants, and for miles around the ground was covered with broken household furniture and articles of clothing. All the treasure had also been removed. The country traversed by the Chinese army was stripped of its vegetation and resembled fields ravaged by locusts,

A rebellion broke out at Jehol, in the Chinese dependency of Mongolia, in revenge for the assassination of six Mongolian princes by the Chinese General Yeh. Very soon the rebellious Mongols committed ninety-one murders. Many deserters from the Chinese armies joined the permanent Mantchoorian banditti, who now formed a dangerous band, after the death of the Chinese General Tso in the battle of Ping-Yang, who had been a terror to the robbers. Robbery was now prevalent in Mantchooria, and was already extending southward across the Great Wall into China proper. Ordinary traffic and traveling were suspended. The country people had implicit confidence in foreign protection, and the fugitive peasants only asked the nearest way to an English settlement.

Over two hundred Chinese mandarins signed a memorial charging Li Hung Chang with corruption, peculation and treason, and demanding his instant punishment. Accordingly an imperial edict was issued depriving him of his rank and all his titles, but allowing him to retain his office of Viceroy.

The fall of Port Arthur and the advance of the Japanese in Mantchooria made the Chinese government exceedingly anxious for peace, and a customs officer in the employ of China was in Japan for the purpose of opening peace negotiations; but Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, refused him an audience or to receive any communication from him, as the sending of a subordinate official was regarded as little less

than an insult on the part of the Chinese government. Japan was ready to accept peace proposals if put forward by a properly accredited envoy and not by a mere messenger sent by a Chinese Viceroy. The only credentials of Detring, the messenger, were a letter from Li Hung Chang to Count Ito. China intimated her intention to offer a war indemnity of one hundred million taels and to pay Japan's war expenses as one of the conditions of peace.

Fighting continued in Mantchooria between Japanese detachments and small bodies of Chinese troops. Several thousand Tonghaks who attacked a Japanese force at Kong-ju, in Southern Korea, on November 28, were defeated with great slaughter.

Two high Chinese officials—Olo Ho Pu, President of the Board of War, and Chang Chi Wan, President of the Civil Board—were superseded at the Chinese Court in consequence of the discovery of certain designs in which a number of high officers were interested. This was another blow to Li Hung Chang's party. Li Hung Chang was still Viceroy of Chee-lee. A Court of Inquiry at Peking condemned the Chinese commandant at Kinchou for surrendering the post to the Japanese, and he was therefore degraded from military rank. General Chan was found guilty of gross neglect in allowing his troops to pillage the populace and more particularly in not preventing them from burning down the Roman Catholic church at Ki-chow, and he was handed over to the Board of War for punishment. The Chinese government gave a four-and-a-half per cent. loan of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling to an English firm.

The Japanese authorities expressed great sorrow for the atrocities of their troops at the capture of Port Arthur, and instituted an official inquiry. It appeared that the Japanese soldiers who committed the atrocities had been frenzied by intoxicating drinks which they had captured from the Chinese. These atrocities were an exception to the conduct of the Japanese during the entire war. Marshal Oyama, commander of the second Japanese army, had upon his invasion of

Mantchooria, early in November, issued a proclamation in which occurred a passage of which the following is a translation.

"Our army fights for the right and for the principles of civilization. Our enemies are the military forces of the country with which we are at war, not the individuals of the country. Against the forces of our foe we must fight with all resolution, but as soon as any of his soldiers surrender they cease to be enemies, and it becomes our duty to treat them with all kindness. * * * * These principles apply with still greater force to the peaceful inhabitants of an enemy's country. Except in cases where the inhabitants offer opposition they should be treated with the utmost consideration.'

Among the abandoned papers and effects of one of the Chinese generals who fled during the Japanese attack upon Port Arthur were found letters from Chinese officers claiming as a matter of course rewards for Japanese hands, heads and feet forwarded to headquarters.

On December 10, 1894, the Japanese division under General Techimi defeated over three thousand Chinese near Kinhuah, the Chinese fleeing in great disorder after a sanguinary struggle. The Japanese loss was forty killed and wounded. The Chinese left about a hundred dead upon the field. The Japanese advanced in force upon Tso-hun-kou.

A brigade of Marshal Oyama's army took Fouchou from the Chinese without encountering any opposition and rapidly advanced towards Niuchuang. The first Japanese army had considerable fighting in its advance through Mantchooria in the middle of December, 1894. On December 11 General Osako's brigade, after several days' slow advance and occasional skirmishing, made a dashing attack upon Hungkaputz, where the Chinese had concentrated their forces. The Chinese line was broken and the Chinese troops fled in disorder, abandoning all their heavy war material. Some fled northward toward Hai-tcheng, and others westward in the direction of Yingkow.

The third division of the left wing of the

first Japanese army attacked Si-mu-tcheng, December 12, and drove the Chinese from the place. The left wing effected a junction with General Osako's brigade the same day, and the combined forces marched upon Hai-tcheng, which was garrisoned by about five thousand Chinese troops. The Japanese attacked the place the next day, and the greater part of the Chinese at once fled, while the fifteen hundred who resisted were finally routed, and the Japanese immediately occupied the town.

On the same day a Japanese force repulsed several attacks by five thousand Chinese at Yih-man-shan, five miles from Feng-huang-tcheng. The next day the Japanese attacked the Chinese left flank, and routed it after a severe struggle, driving it in disorderly retreat by a second charge, the Chinese losing about four hundred killed and wounded, and the Japanese about eighty.

Prince Kung was now appointed President of the Grand Council of the Chinese Empire, thus making him virtual dictator. Li Hung Chang's position at Tien-tsin was firmly established. The Empress-Dowager gave emphatic assurances of her confidence in him, and the Chinese Court found him indispensable, as he was the only capable man, the others having proven useless.

Li Hung Chang was ordered to arrest the civil and military officials who were in command at Port Arthur, and to send them to Peking to be tried and punished for the loss of the fortress. Generals Yeh and Wei, who escaped from Ping Yang, were also to be handed over to the Board of Punishment. The Court slowly sifted out the truth in regard to the conduct of the campaign, and it discovered that General Yeh was undeservedly rewarded for his retreat from Asan. The Emperor was indignant.

Chang, Li Hung Chang's nephew, was arrested at Nankin, charged with peculation, and his property was seized. Orders were also issued for the arrest of Li Hung Chang's son-in-law at Tien-tsin.

The native rebellion at Jehol, in Mongolia, was spreading, and Li Hung Chang tried to raise a special force of five thousand

Chinese troops to cope with the Mongols, but no arms were available for this force.

The Japanese government intimated that the overtures of China for peace through the United States ministers at Tokio and Peking were futile, as Japan did not believe in China's sincerity; and Japan further intimated that China must sue for peace direct.

The Japanese authorities made a strict official inquiry into the excesses committed by the Japanese troops upon the capture of Port Arthur. It was found that the reports of the cruelties of the Japanese were true, but that, besides the mutilated bodies of captured Japanese soldiers, the Japanese, on entering the town, found many heads of Japanese soldiers stuck upon poles erected over or in front of the residences of civilians resident in the town. The Japanese officials at Port Arthur adopted stringent regulations for the protection of the inhabitants who returned to their homes, and furnished food to many of them.

On December 19, 1894, the Japanese force under General Katsura attacked ten thousand Chinese under General Sung at the village of Kungwasai, about eight miles from Hai-tcheng, and a severe fight followed. General Osako's brigade was the first to engage. Meanwhile the Japanese were reinforced by General Oshima's brigade from Hai-tcheng. The Japanese artillery played havoc in the Chinese ranks. The Japanese infantry cut their way through the Chinese ranks, but the Chinese rallied and stubbornly held their ground. Thrice the Japanese dashed through the Chinese lines, and after five hours' desperate hand-to-hand fighting the Chinese began to falter and were in full and disorderly flight, while the Japanese occupied the village of Kungwasai. The Chinese lost about nine hundred killed and wounded, and the Japanese four hundred and fifty. A division of the second Japanese army under Lieutenant-General Baron Yamagi entered Kai-chou, or Kai-phing, without resistance, December 18.

After a stormy session of the Tsung-li-Yamen, the opposition of Prince Ching was

overruled, and passes were granted for foreign guards for the foreign legations at Peking.

The Tonghak rebels in Korea captured Hai-ju, the capital of Hwang-hai-do, northwest of Seoul, expelled the governor and installed one of their own leaders in the place. The rebels were also very active in the south of Korea, where they burned three towns. A thousand Tonghaks attacked and defeated the garrison of Chollado, consisting of three hundred troops, December 17, looting and burning the houses in the vicinity, and compelling the people to flee. The rebels murdered the chief Korean official at Sunchon. Chinese were reported to be among the Tonghak rebels. The Korean government decided to borrow five million yen from the Japanese and to issue notes to the amount of fifteen million yen.

The Japanese Parliament convened on Christmas eve, 1894. The Mikado's speech briefly referred to the Japanese victories in the field, and also alluded to the satisfactory relations of Japan with the great Western powers.

Isolated encounters occurred between the Japanese and roving bands of Chinese, who were being driven beyond the Japanese line of occupation in Mantchooria.

Field-Marshal Oyama established a central civil administration at Kinchou, in order to preserve confidence among the people of the Liao-tung peninsula. He assured peaceful inhabitants of protection by the Japanese authorities, and invited those in distress in consequence of the war to apply to the administrator for relief.

Lin-kun-yi, late Viceroy of Nankin, was appointed to the chief command of all the Chinese armies in the field, superseding both Prince Kung and Li Hung Chang. He immediately petitioned to be relieved on account of indisposition, but his request was refused. The Governor of Shantung sent a memorial to the Chinese Court, bringing further grave charges of cowardice, negligence and incompetence against several high officials, including Admiral Ting and General Wei. These accusations were sup-

ported by fresh evidence, and an imperial decree ordered the immediate arrest and punishment of the accused.

A Censor who had the temerity to charge the Empress-Dowager of China with exercising undue influence in matters of state entirely beyond her capacity to understand was condemned to perpetual banishment.

John W. Foster, Secretary of State in President Harrison's Administration in the United States, agreed to go to Japan to aid the Chinese plenipotentiaries to negotiate peace, in accordance with a request from the Chinese government to President Cleveland's Administration.

Japanese marines under Tsukuba Kan landed in the province of Chollado, in the southwest of Korea, and dispersed the Tonghak rebels, who had founded a new kingdom, styling it the Kingdom of Kainan and installing a member of the Nieng family as king. A Japanese detachment defeated and dispersed more than six thousand Tonghak rebels in the province of Whang-hai-do-met, after four hours' fighting, December 23, 1894.

Mr. Detring, who had been appointed peace envoy to Japan by Li Hung Chang, was recalled by a telegram from Prince Kung, whose action was prompted by the American minister at Peking. In the latter part of December, 1894, Chang-yin-houan, the Vice-President of the Tsung-li-Yamen, was appointed envoy, and the Japanese government promised to receive him with an honest desire to help him in his peaceful mission.

The independence of Korea was solemnly proclaimed at Seoul, January 7, 1895. In the forenoon the King and his Cabinet, civil and military dignitaries, and officers of the royal household, proceeded to the Temple of the king's ancestors, and there declared that thenceforth Korea would be independent of every other country. The ceremony was a striking one. The Korean soldiers of His Majesty's escort wore uniforms fashioned in the modern Japanese style. Ministers Bokuyeiko and Yokohan were specially guarded by Japanese police-

men, but the streets were entirely guarded by the newly formed native Korean police, who performed their duties well. Everything went on smoothly at Seoul, and the Koreans seemed quite reconciled to the presence of the Japanese and disposed to follow their advice. Several Tonghak leaders were captured and beheaded near Sunchon, and the Korean soldiers dispersed the rebels, who were disheartened by the death of their leaders.

The Chinese under General Sung retreated from Niuchuang after severe fighting on December 22, 1894, but on Christmas day General Sung marched back and reoccupied Niuchuang without opposition. The Japanese soldiers in Mantchooria suffered intensely from the cold. A state of anarchy prevailed at Moukden, where the Chinese and Mantchoo soldiers frequently fought each other, and the populace were outraged and plundered by both, who killed every civilian who dared to offer the least resistance to the brutal soldiery. Twelve thousand more Chinese troops were sent to the Mantchoorian capital. A Chinese force under General Nieh between Hao-cha-fang and Shi-hao-tsu harried the district as though it was an enemy's country, all able-bodied Mantchoorians being pressed into the Chinese military service and every village being ransacked for arms, the Chinese soldiers paying for nothing.

Chang-yin-houan, the Chinese peace envoy, proceeded to Japan and was afterwards joined by the other Chinese envoys in the peace negotiations. John W. Foster, the American ex-Secretary of State, left Victoria, British Columbia, for Japan to assist the Chinese envoys. Li Hung Chang handed General Wei over to the Board of Punishment at Peking, as there was a disposition to hold the Viceroy himself responsible for the accused general's cowardice and incapacity. The Board of Punishment found General Wei guilty of cowardice, extortion and plundering, and he was soon afterward beheaded at Peking.

Disturbances occurred in the Chinese provinces of Shantung and Chee-lee, and

the government was endeavoring to repress disorder. Two detachments of Moham-medan cavalry, five thousand each, arrived at Tien-tsin early in January. These men were fanatics, and swore to avenge the death of their chief, killed at Ping Yang.

The Mantchoo princes took the defense of their country into their own hands, having been thwarted hitherto by the Chinese officials, a disagreement which paralyzed the executive and rendered the central government bewildered and helpless. The district between the rivers Yalu and Liao, in Mantchooria, presented one ghastly scene of desolation, reducing a populous region to a vast solitude. No houses were left standing, the very timbers being burned. Towns and villages were without a vestige of life, the entire populations having perished. Only scattered groups of frozen corpses were seen, while neither food nor fuel could be procured. The stragglers from the Chinese army who sought refuge in the hills and forests became savages and lost all human feeling. The sufferings of the wounded were terrible. The movements of both armies were hindered by the exhaustion of supplies which had been brought in by the country people from fear. The prospect of the continuation of such scenes appalled even the stolid Chinese who witnessed them.

A brigade of the second Japanese army, under General Nogi, in the midst of a deep snow, which hindered the movements of artillery, attacked four thousand Chinese under General Seh, who had fourteen cannon, at Kai-phing, January 10, 1895. After four hours' fighting, the Japanese infantry made successive charges on the right and left flanks and the center of the Chinese, who were thrown into confusion and routed in headlong flight, leaving the Japanese in possession of the town. The Chinese lost two thousand killed and wounded, nearly half their force. General Neih, narrowly escaped capture by the Japanese while fleeing from Kai-phing through Honmonzen in a carriage, his horse being killed and himself being wounded in the thigh. The Japanese

loss in killed and wounded was over three hundred.

On January 16, 1895, about thirteen thousand Chinese cannonaded the Japanese position at Niuchuang. The Japanese under General Katsura replied by an artillery fire and their shells threw the Chinese into confusion, and finally a charge by the Japanese upon the Chinese right flank resulted in the capture of five Chinese cannon and the rout of the entire Chinese force, while a charge upon the Chinese center completely dispersed the fleeing host, one portion fleeing northward, while the remainder retreated toward Niuchuang. The victorious Japanese pursued the fleeing Chinese, charging them wherever they made a stand. The Chinese lost about two hundred. The Japanese lost less than fifty killed and wounded.

The Japanese bombarded Teng-chou, northwest of the Shantung promontory, one whole day, January 19, 1895, dismounting many of the Chinese cannon, and silencing the fire of the Chinese forts. The next day, Sunday, January 20, 1895, fifty Japanese transports appeared off Yung-tcheng Bay, south of the Shantung promontory, and landed twenty-five thousand Japanese troops, after three Japanese men-of-war had silenced the Chinese earthworks.

Many Chinese warships were blockaded in the harbor of Wei-hai-wei, which was garrisoned by eleven thousand Chinese troops. The population of Chefoo were so excited by the near approach of the Japanese that sailors were landed from the British, German, French and American warships, and all the foreign consulates were specially guarded, while foreign blue jackets and marines patrolled the European quarter of the city.

On January 22, 1895, ten thousand Chinese attacked the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed, leaving one hundred dead upon the field, while the Japanese lost none killed and only twenty-eight wounded. On January 24 the Chinese renewed their attack on the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were again repulsed after a short engagement.

On January 23, 1895, the Chinese repulsed an attack of the Japanese advance guard near Yung-tcheng. The Japanese were also repulsed in several attacks on Wei-hai-wei with considerable loss. On January 26 the Japanese fleet advanced in two divisions of nineteen ships on Wei-hai-wei, but was driven off by a fire from the Chinese fleet and shore batteries. The Chinese lost twenty-seven sailors. At the same time the Japanese army made an attack upon Wei-hai-wei from Ning-Hai, but were repulsed. In these attacks the Japanese lost over three hundred killed and wounded.

On January 18 and 19, 1895, three Japanese war vessels bombarded Teng-chou. Continued risings occurred in Southern Korea and the adjacent islands. The Chinese peace envoys who arrived at Kobe, Japan, late in January, 1895, were received by the populace with a hostile demonstration. A Tartar from the border of Kerin, the eastern district of Mantchooria, arrived in the camp of the Japanese General Nodzu, where he denounced the ravages of the Chinese and offered the services of sixty thousand Mantchoos to join the Japanese in attacking Moukden and avenging the cruelties of the Chinese. The Japanese paid the man's traveling expenses, and instructed him to report upon the condition of the Chinese army, but refused his services.

On January 30, 1895, the Japanese captured all the southern forts at Wei-hai-wei, after a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrisons and considerable loss on both sides, the Chinese evacuating the forts and retreating to Fung-lin-Chu. The Japanese attack had been made under cover of a severe bombardment from the Japanese fleet in the harbor. The next day the Japanese garrisons in the captured forts and the Japanese warships cannonaded and bombarded the Chinese fleet, finally driving back the Chinese war vessels. The Japanese entered Wei-hai-wei on February 2, 1895. On Sunday, February 3, 1895, the fortress island of Leu-kung-tau, in Wei-hai-wei harbor, was captured by the Japanese, after a severe bombardment from the Japanese fleet and

the Japanese shore batteries on the mainland, and a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrison in the island forts. The loss was heavy on both sides, the Chinese losing about two thousand killed and wounded. A Japanese gunboat was sunk, and a magazine in one of the forts was blown up by the explosion of a shell from the Japanese. Japanese torpedo boats entered Wei-hai-wei harbor and sunk the Chinese cruisers *Ting Yuen*, *Lai-Yeun* and *Chen Yeun* during the nights of February 4 and 5, and pursued and captured or destroyed thirteen Chinese torpedo boats. Japanese marines and sailors landed on Leu-kung-tau island on February 6 but were stoutly resisted by the Chinese, and desperate fighting followed. Admiral Ting surrendered the remaining Chinese war vessels and the Leu-kung-tau forts to Admiral Ito. Admiral Ting, General Chang and Captain Liu committed suicide. The Chinese soldiers and sailors just surrendered were at once liberated by the Japanese.

In the meantime the Japanese were experiencing great difficulties at Niuchuang, where the cold was intense, the thermometer at one time registering thirteen degrees below zero. On January 17, 1895, the Japanese suffered a slight reverse between Hai-tcheng and Liao-Yang, at the hands of fifteen hundred Mantchoos under Han, a rebel squatter from Northern Mantchooria. The commander of a Mantchoo battalion who failed to support Han was promptly beheaded for cowardice. The mob at Niuchuang plundered and ill-treated the native merchants and alarmed the foreign residents.

The Chinese peace envoys, with Mr. Foster, their American adviser, arrived at Hiroshima, in Japan, January 31, 1895, and were refused an audience by Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, on the ground that their plenary powers were utterly inadequate. As the Japanese government officially declined all further negotiations, the envoys left Hiroshima on February 4. The text of the credentials given to the Chinese envoys empowered them to "meet and negotiate the matter with the plenipotentiaries of Japan," but directed them to "telegraph

to the Tsung-li-Yamen for the purpose of obtaining our commands, by which you will abide."

Eleven foreign residents of Chefoo sought refuge at Shanghai, while many Chinese merchants also left Chefoo. The Chinese authorities at Chefoo beheaded all runaway Chinese soldiers who came there from Wei-hai-wei. The Chinese Emperor was so incensed at the loss of Wei-hai-wei that he authorized the Viceroy of the province of Shantung to behead all fugitives without previously reporting to His Majesty.

The Black Flags committed ravages on the island of Formosa, and a British war vessel went thither from Hong Kong in response to a request from the British residents. The foreign ministers in China were received by the Emperor on the occasion of the Chinese New Year, February 14, 1895. The ministers obtained certain ceremonial concessions, one of which was that they be admitted by the front gate of the imperial palace at Peking. They afterward ordered guards from Tien-tsin for the protection of their respective legations.

A formidable conspiracy in Peking against the Chinese Emperor and his government was discovered, the conspirators being members of a secret society called the *Thalli* and said to number fifty thousand persons. Their plans for an outbreak had been almost completed when they were frustrated by the discovery of the plot and the arrest of the leaders.

Li Hung Chang was restored to all his honors and was appointed Imperial Commissioner to negotiate for peace with Japan. China requested that the Japanese Peace Commissioners might meet Li Hung Chang at Port Arthur to conduct the negotiations there. The Japanese government absolutely declined to treat anywhere but on Japanese soil.

The Japanese government asked the Japanese Parliament for a fresh credit of one hundred million yen on account of the war expenditure, which was at once voted, thus making the amount thus far voted two hundred and fifty million yen. The Korean

Ministry tendered their resignation, but the King refused to accept them, and the anti-reform Ministers instigated several attempts to assassinate Prince Pok.

Fifteen thousand Chinese were repulsed in an attack on the Japanese position at Hai-tcheng, February 16, 1895, with the loss of one hundred and fifty killed and wounded, the Japanese losing only three men killed. Twelve thousand Chinese from the Niuchuang and Yingkow districts made a concerted attack on the Japanese position on February 21, but were repulsed with considerable loss. The repeated attacks of the Chinese were repelled by the well-directed fire of General Nodzu's artillery. The first attack was made from the Liao-Yang road, but the most determined assaults were from the Tong-wa-shan road, where more than a hundred Chinese were killed by the Japanese shells. At three o'clock the Chinese retreated on all sides, and were pursued by the Japanese cavalry, who took some prisoners. Only six Japanese were killed.

In Mantchooria a Chinese force of three thousand infantry and one hundred cavalry and eight cannon attacked Kumo-tcheng on February 17, 1895, but was repulsed with the loss of thirty killed and a number captured, but without any loss by the Japanese.

An imperial decree issued at Peking, February 19, 1895, announced that the Taotai Kung and General Yeh-chi-cau had been tried by the Board of Punishment for the loss of Port Arthur, and sentenced to imprisonment until the next autumn, the time set for their execution.

The Tsung-li-Yamen deliberated on the question, "Shall the war with Japan be continued or shall we treat for peace?" It was decided to submit the question to all the provincial authorities of the first three ranks, and their opinion was urgently demanded by telegraph. The replies were to the effect that, although Japan had unjustly provoked the war, peace was very desirable. But some of the replies declared that the terms of peace must be "bearable." In an interview with a news correspondent Prince Kung

said that Japan had deliberately provoked the war and asked: "Can the Japanese overrun all our provinces? Will Heaven permit such a thing? Will other nations acquiesce in it?"

On Sunday, March 3, 1895, the Chinese army in Mantchooria made two attacks on the Japanese positions at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed in both instances, with the loss of two hundred killed and as many wounded.

The Japanese under General Nodzu attacked eighteen thousand Chinese, between the Liao-Yang and Niuchuang roads, with complete success, on Sunday, March 3, 1895, the Japanese losing ten men killed and about a hundred wounded, while the Chinese lost a hundred and fifty killed and about two hundred wounded. The Japanese captured Niuchuang the next day, after desperate fighting, the fortifications being carried after a two hours' bombardment, and the Chinese driven out after eleven hours' fighting. The Chinese lost nineteen hundred killed and five hundred prisoners. The Japanese lost over two hundred killed and wounded. On the same day an attack by ten thousand Chinese under General Sung on the Japanese positions at Taping-shan was repulsed without loss to the Japanese. Two days later a division of the second Japanese army captured Yingkow, the port of Niuchuang, after severe fighting with the Chinese under General Sung, who lost several hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese loss was small.

Disturbances were increasing throughout the Chinese Empire. A general in the province of Shantung who attempted to suppress pillage was beheaded by his own troops, and similar disorders occurred in the province of Ho-nan.

The Japanese warships captured at Wei-hai-wei were taken to Yokohama by their Japanese crews. The Japanese abandoned Wei-hai-wei and the entire province of Shantung, after destroying the forts. During the last few months of the war Japan bought war vessels from Chili at several different times.

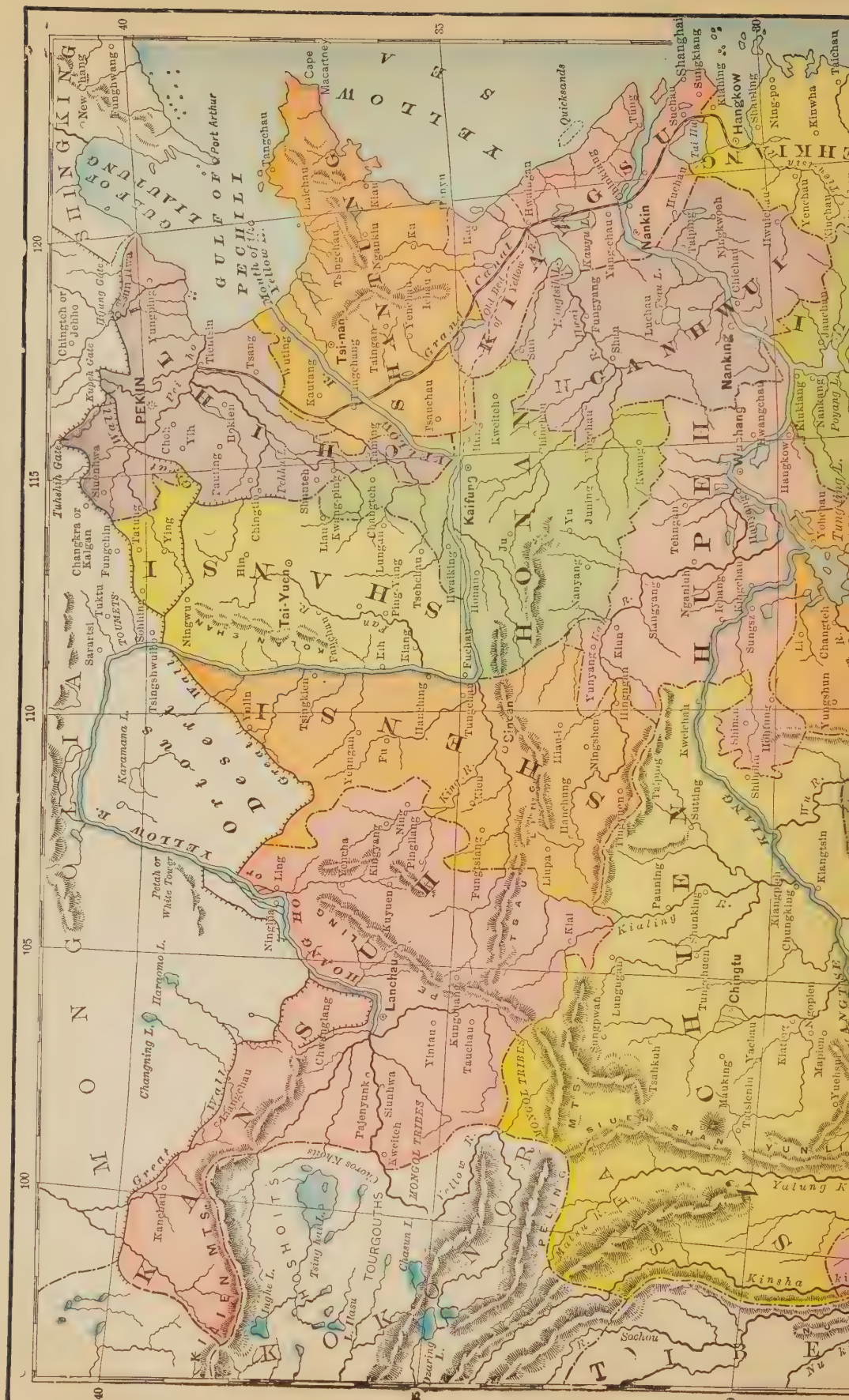
Bands of Mantchoorian soldiers ravaged the province of Ham-Gyong-Do, in Northern Korea, and plundered the gold mines. The Korean Minister of War and several other high Korean officials were permitted to accompany the second Japanese army to witness the military operations.

After the capture of Niuchuang and Yingkow the first and second Japanese armies effected a junction, and a division of the first army attacked the Chinese under General Sung at Thien-chuang-thai, March 9, 1895, and gained a decided victory after three hours' hand-to-hand fighting in the streets, nearly two hundred Chinese being killed and wounded and six hundred taken prisoners, while eighteen cannon and a large quantity of rifles and ammunition were captured by the victorious Japanese. General Sung's army was completely broken up by his repeated reverses. The Mikado congratulated General Nodzu on his successes in Mantchooria and promoted him to the rank of Field-Marshal.

The Chinese held their ground in fighting near Kiu-lien-tcheng on March 18, 1895. Prince Komatsu, the Japanese commander-in-chief, was ordered to China.

The Chinese government now reluctantly recognized the abandonment of a war policy as the only possible course in view of the uninterrupted disasters to the Chinese arms, and Li Hung Chang was sent to Japan as a peace envoy. China had already agreed to the points to be discussed at the peace conference, but instructed her ministers in Great Britain, France, Germany and Russia to solicit the intervention of those powers for the protection of the integrity of China's continental territories in case Japan insisted on concessions on the mainland.

Li Hung Chang arrived at Shimonoseki, Japan, March 19, 1895, and was received by the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs. On Sunday, March 24, a dastardly attack was made upon the life of Li Hung Chang by a young Japanese, named Koyama Rukonosoki, who rushed from the crowd in the street, pistol in hand, and shot the distinguished Chinese statesman in the left





CHINA

Scale of Miles
0 25 50 100 200 300
110 Longitude East from Greenwich 115

cheek, while he was being conveyed to his hotel in his palanquin from a conference with the Japanese peace negotiators. The would-be-assassin was arrested on the spot. The strongest indignation was expressed by the native and foreign press in Japan. Special messages of sympathy and regret were sent to the wounded envoy from the Mikado and his Empress, and the Japanese Ministers of State and high government officials called at his residence. The Japanese Parliament adopted fitting resolutions of regret at the dastardly outrage, and the Mikado and his Ministry published in the *Official Gazette* a message condemning the horrid deed. General indignation at the attempted assassination prevailed throughout Japan. By the Mikado's command two eminent surgeons and physicians attended the wounded Chinese envoy, and the Empress of Japan sent two nurses to attend him. Li Hung Chang soon recovered from his wound. The would-be-assassin was tried for his dastardly crime and convicted, and was sentenced to four-teen years' imprisonment.

On March 22, 1895, the Japanese effected a landing on one of the Pescadore Islands, and took the forts the next day. Makung Castle was taken only after two engagements. A thousand Chinese troops on the Yen-kung peninsula surrendered. The trophies captured by the Japanese were nine heavy cannon and a large number of rifles. The Chinese lost thirty killed and sixty prisoners, while the Japanese lost only one killed and sixteen wounded. The Chinese themselves blew up the magazine on Fisher Island. On March 24 a Japanese squadron bombarded the forts of Haichow, on the Kiangsu coast, and under cover of the fire a force of several thousand Japanese troops landed and captured the city after a determined resistance from the Chinese, who lost three hundred killed and wounded.

The Japanese plenipotentiaries proposed the following conditions for an armistice: 1. The occupation of Shan-hai-kuan, Taku and Tien-tsin by Japanese troops. 2. Japanese control of the unfinished railroad from Shan-hai-kuan to Tien-tsin, and custody of the

various forts and fortifications, together with the arms and ammunition. 3. The payment by China of the war contributions required for such occupation.

The Japanese refused Li Hung Chang's request for more moderate conditions, but the Mikado finally ordered the Japanese plenipotentiaries to consent to an armistice until April 20. The armistice applied only to Feng-thien, Pe-chee-lee and Shantung.

The most responsible statesmen of Japan desired peace, but their efforts were thwarted by the war party. The Japanese newspapers were practically unanimous for a continuance of the war. Some influential newspapers called for the occupation of Peking and the conquest of Southern China.

The peace negotiations proceeded leisurely for several weeks, China hesitating to accept the Japanese conditions; but finally, when Japan by an ultimatum threatened to renew hostilities within twenty-four hours unless her terms were accepted, China agreed to Japan's conditions and the treaty was signed, April 16, 1895. The following were the conditions of the Peace of Shimonoseki: 1. The independence of Korea. 2. The retention of the conquered places by Japan. 3. The cession of the Liao-tung peninsula by China to Japan. 4. The permanent cession of the island of Formosa and the Pescadores by China to Japan. 5. The payment of a war indemnity of two hundred million taels in silver (one hundred million dollars) by China to Japan, in seven yearly instalments, five per cent. interest being added each year on the amount remaining unpaid, the whole of the interest to be canceled if China paid the entire indemnity within three years. 6. The opening of the ports of Chingtu, Kai-fong, Huchow and Shao-king, in China, to foreign commerce. Three weeks were allowed for the exchange of ratifications, and the armistice was prolonged to May 8.

The conclusion of peace was received with great satisfaction in Japan, the only disapproval being by the extreme war party, whose leading members still declared that the humiliation of China ought to have

been completed by a Japanese occupation of the Chinese capital. The war had produced a terrible strain on Japan, and there was general and sincere rejoicing among the Japanese people at the termination of the struggle. The Mikado, in a proclamation to his subjects, expressed his appreciation of their unselfish and patriotic conduct, which had enabled the Japanese to be victorious everywhere on land and sea, but at the same time he pointed out that it is through peace that the national prosperity is to be really promoted.

The extreme war party in China, like that of Japan, was dissatisfied with the treaty of peace, and at once accused Li Hung Chang of needlessly consenting to and even faci-

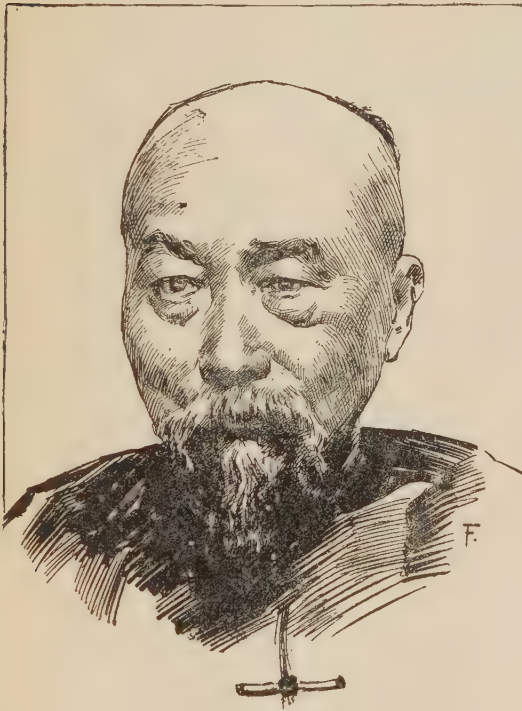
and open rioting resulted in which nearly a hundred persons were killed and wounded.

The cession of Chinese territory on the continent of Asia was bitterly opposed by Russia, France and Germany, and the ministers of these three European powers at Tokio issued a formal protest against the articles of the Peace of Shimonoseki stipulating for the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula to Japan. England refused to unite with the three powers in the protest, and was bitterly denounced by the Russian press, which intimated that Russia should seize India in revenge for England's attitude in this emergency. Japan finally receded, and agreed to accept a money compensation in place of the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula; whereupon the treaty of peace was speedily ratified by both China and Japan.

Late in May, 1895, the Formosans proclaimed their island a republic, electing Tang, the late Chinese governor of the island, for their President; but when the Japanese troops took possession of the island President Tang fled, and the Formosan republic fell as suddenly as it arose, the Japanese defeating the Black Flags in several actions early in June.

KOREAN REVOLT.

On February 11, 1896, an event of much importance occurred, affecting the political future of Korea. The uprising of October 8, 1895, removed the Queen, who had all along been the most potent factor against Japanese influence in the island. All of the officials about the King had been replaced by others in full sympathy with Japan, when on the date first mentioned a counter-revolution began, and matters were in such an unsettled state that Russia intervened and sent an armed force for the protection of her own subjects and to restore order. In June an agreement was entered into between Japan and Russia, for a joint protectorate over the island, but under this arrangement the control of Japan was but nominal, Russia being the real reliance of the Korean king.



LI HUNG CHANG

tating the degradation and dismemberment of his country. In Canton the discontent was very strong, and a popular rebellion against the Mantchoo Tartar dynasty and for the expulsion of the Viceroy and other imperial officials from the city was threatened. In Formosa there was great opposition to the cession of that island to Japan,

RECENT EVENTS IN CHINA.

The Dungan rebellion in China occurred in July, 1895, and proved formidable, involving no less than eight hundred thousand men. The name Dungan is applied to all Mohammedans from Kashgar to the verge of the Great Wall of China. The war with Japan had left the country in an unsettled state, but this revolt was directly precipitated by an act of oppression on the part of a Chinese official. It spread rapidly, and although the rebels were defeated at the first they gained strength daily, and it required an active campaign by a large body of Chinese troops until December, 1895, to finally crush the uprising.

Li Hung Chang, the distinguished Chinese viceroy, made a tour of the principal cities of Europe, and also visited the United States, during the summer of 1896. Following so closely upon the war with Japan, this tour gave rise to the thought that it had some political significance, but this theory gave way later to the belief that the Chinese statesman, recognizing the fact that his own country was behind the rest of the world in modern civilization, had undertaken by personal observation to learn the points wherein his people were lacking. He was everywhere received with such marks of respect as befitted his rank as the representative of a great nation.

PERSIA.

On May 1, 1896, the Shah of Persia, Nassr-ed-Din, met his death at the hands of an assassin, of the Babi sect, which the Shah had endeavored to suppress. The Shah was about to enter the shrine of Shah Abdul-Azim, a few miles from Teheran, and had just passed the outer court, when the murderer, who was disguised as a woman, shot him, and he died in a short time. The assassin was hanged August 12, 1896. Mozaffer-ed-Din, second son of the dead ruler, was proclaimed Shah May 2, 1896. On May 10, to check the numerous robberies committed, and act as a warning to all evil-doers, the terrible punishment of

"gatching," which consists in burying the prisoner alive in wet plaster-of-paris, was revived in Persia, although it had not pre-



MOZAFFER-ED-DIN, SHAH OF PERSIA.

vously been inflicted there for over forty years.

TURKEY.—THE ARMENIAN MASSACRES.

The Ottoman Empire was saved from dissolution in 1856 by the intervention of the European powers, and promises of reform in the government of its Christian subjects were then made by the Porte. In a number of instances these promises were enforced, notably in the case of the Greeks, Cretans, Bulgarians, Serbs, Bosnians, and the people of the Lebanon. These peoples were not specifically mentioned in the treaty of Paris, therefore a similar right and duty of intervention has always existed in the case of the Armenians. But by the treaty of Berlin, in 1878, Turkey gave specific pledges of reform, and conceded to all the powers the right to enforce these pledges, more particularly to Great Britain; yet the terrible massacres of the Armenians by the Turks, Kurds, Softas, and Laszes, which have shocked civilized nations since 1893, have completely nullified Turkish promises of reform, and promises of protection on the part of the powers. There has never been a time, indeed, when Musulman and Christian have dwelt together

in harmony, doubtless owing to the peculiar tenets of the Mohammedan religion; and the events of the last few years have taught that there is no permanent safety for Christians under Moslem rule, even when that rule is directed, or supposed to be directed, by the strong guiding hand of a nation like England, fortified by a solemn treaty, signed by all the important European powers. During the two decades that have nearly elapsed since the treaty of Berlin, there has been no



THE SULTAN OF TURKEY.

uninterrupted season of peace and safety for Christians under the rule of the Sultan. As early as 1882, only four years after the promise of reform on the part of Turkey and of protection on the part of the powers, the Kurdish chief Obeidullah, at the head of a band of his Mussulman followers, swept down upon the Armenians and killed a large number, not sparing even women and children. Although the Kurds were subjects of Turkey, the Porte had claimed that it was never possible to control them;

but it does not appear that any honest effort to restrain them from despoiling the Armenians had ever been made. Of late years, indeed, the Kurds have been enrolled as a kind of cavalry similar to the Russian Cossacks; they were furnished with arms, and as Turkish troops have been even more aggressive, predatory and cruel than ever before.

The government itself described these attacks of the Kurds upon the Armenians as revolutionary outbreaks of the latter, which the regular troops were simply engaged in suppressing. The region was difficult of access, and all reports of Armenian affairs necessarily came through Turkish channels. In September, 1894, occurred the horrible massacre in the Sassoun district. A band of Kurds was pursued by Armenians, whom they had robbed, and a fight ensued in which a number of Kurds were killed. Telegrams were sent to the Turkish authorities that some of the Sultan's troops had been slain, and a force of infantry and cavalry was immediately dispatched to quell the alleged uprising. Although there was no armed resistance, over 6,000 men, women and children were slaughtered, and thirty villages destroyed. The indorsement of the Sultan Abdul-Hamid II. was given to this action by the presentation by him of a decoration to the commander of the corps, and four new flags to the Kurdish cavalry.

On May 11, 1895, a detailed scheme for Armenian reforms was presented to the Sultan by the representatives of Great Britain, Russia and France, but not until June 20 was an answer to these demands received. The Porte acceded to the principle of control by the powers, but asked that the period of active intervention might be limited to three years; he however denied that the treaty of Berlin conferred on the powers the right to demand the guarantee. On October 17 of the same year the Sultan accepted, with some modifications, the proposal laid before him on May 11, but this acceptance was considered humiliating to Turkish pride. When the plan of reform for the hated Christians became known, through the Porte, to the

emphasize their earnestness, and call attention of the civilized world to their condition, they attacked and took possession of the Ottoman Bank, a British institution and the controlling financial power in Turkey. The plan, as carried out, was to secretly place large quantities of explosives and bombs on the bank premises; then, by a sudden rush, to seize and hold the bank officials prisoners under the threat of instantly blowing up the building unless relief was granted. About



TURKISH SOLDIER.

2 P.M., on the day named, twenty-five to thirty men made a sudden descent on the bank by preconcerted signal, firing bombs and revolvers. The officials of the bank fled precipitately, but no part of the vast amount of money left behind them by this action was touched by the revolutionists. The police and military were unable to dislodge these intruders, who had gained full possession. Almost as if by preconcerted arrangement, the Turks and Kurds, on the

first outbreak at the bank, began the indiscriminate slaughter of Armenians wherever found; and this action points strongly to the fact that the Turkish government had only been waiting for an open demonstration of some kind to begin the work of extermination. The massacre continued in various parts of the city and suburbs, through that day and the next, until between 5,000 and 6,000 Armenians were killed. In the meantime, through the intervention of the foreign ministers, the revolutionists, who had seized the bank, surrendered, and were allowed to leave the city without arrest. On August 29 the foreign ambassadors at Constantinople sent a joint and most decisive protest to the Sultan against the state of anarchy existing in the city, and demanded a judicial

investigation into the affair; after some correspondence the Sultan appointed an international commission of investigation, also a commission to deal with the Armenian refugees in Constantinople.

The massacres above enumerated aroused a storm of indignation throughout the civilized world, and numerous meetings of protest were held, especially in Great Britain and the United States; memorials were presented to home governments, and demands made that the powers should put an end to Armenian persecution; but no Christian nation seemed willing to take the initiative in decisive action. The policy of avoidance of Armenian affairs by Great Britain was clearly demonstrated in Parliament on March 3, 1896, by the adoption of a resolution expressing hope for the Armenians, but containing nothing of a positive nature. The Congress of the United States, on January 27, 1896, passed resolutions to the effect that it hoped the foreign powers would at once take decided steps to stop the atrocities against the unoffending Christians in Turkey, and the President was requested to communicate the resolution to the powers; and the assurance was also given that he would have the most decided support of Congress in any measures to protect American citizens in Turkey. Russia occupied the position of trying to conciliate the Sultan, rather than enter actively into any movement to ameliorate the sufferings of the Armenians. Her ambassador at Constantinople was in high favor. She was evidently more desirous to become the reliance of the Porte in its difficulties, or to stand ready to seize a portion of Turkish territory should that country become disintegrated, than to relieve, by active occupation, the distressing situation in Armenia. The latter course could not be taken without violating the treaty of Berlin and the Anglo-Turkish convention, and Russia therefore devoted herself to cultivating the good graces of the Sultan. France also had been lukewarm, acting in accord with Russia, for France was still a party to the Franco-Russian alliance of 1891, and hesitated to

proceed in any manner that might seem in conflict with the policy of her powerful Muscovite ally. Germany may or may not have been actuated in her course of mild protest by sordid views, but the fact remains that about this time the Porte placed



KURDISH SOLDIER.

large orders for war material in Germany, and the assurance was given by the representatives of Turkey that still larger orders would follow. Spain had enough to do in trying to explain away charges of inhumanity in the conduct of her own military affairs in Cuba; while Italy and Austria seemed content to allow the more prominent powers to take the initiative—all diplomatic Europe being apparently inclined to strongly deprecate any step which might disturb the delicate equilibrium of the powers and possibly precipitate a general war in whose lurid glare the Armenian horrors would pale to insignificance.

And thus the end of the century which had done so much for the advancement of civil and religious liberty, stood clouded by the diplomatic consent of the leading Chris-

tian nations to the most persistent, cruel and bloody persecution of a Christian people the world had ever seen.

The uprising in Crete, early in the year 1896, succeeded in a measure the Armenian question as a matter of international apprehension. The Christian Cretans, numbering about 270,000 people, had for many years been desirous of throwing off the Turkish yoke so as to form a union with Greece. The number of Turks upon the island did not exceed 70,000. The immediate incident which led to the outbreak was the substitution of a Mussulman governor in the place of the Christian governor, who was recalled. Turkhan Pasha, the new governor, began his term with a series of acts that demonstrated that he was not in sympathy with the Christians, and the latter took up arms and serious collisions followed. As in the case of Armenia, it was reported that concerted action of the European powers would be taken. Russia, indeed, who was strongly suspected of having defeated international intervention in Armenian matters, conveyed to the Porte a most emphatic warning and protest. Toward the end of June the Porte, actuated no doubt by the attitude of the powers, recalled the Mohammedan governor and appointed a Christian in his stead, and followed this action by a proclamation offering complete amnesty to the insurgents if they would lay down their arms; but the latter refused to accept these offers, unless accompanied by reforms to be guaranteed by the European powers. This resulted in continued fighting, and Greece, tacitly if not openly, assisted the insurgents, actuated by a desire to see Crete free and annexed to her own domain.

Some promises of reforms, and a new constitution for Crete, brought temporary pacification of the Hellenic element, but these reforms were never seriously undertaken. The unnatural government of Christian Crete by a Mohammedan state, continued to be provocative of insurrection. In 1896 the rebellion in the island amounted to a war. The sympathies of Greece were

aroused in behalf of the insurgents, and King George, obeying the enthusiastic demand of the Greek nation, announced a programme for the occupation of Crete. War vessels and troops were sent to the island. The great powers Germany, Austria, England, Italy and Russia, warned Greece that the occupation of Crete would not be permitted. War vessels were sent by these powers to blockade the ports, and patrol the coasts, and one station of the insurgent and Greek forces was shelled by German war ships. Nevertheless, Greek troops were landed, and provisions and arms conveyed to the insurgent army. Preparations for war were rapidly prosecuted both in Greece and Turkey. The whole Greek army was put in readiness to concentrate in Thessaly on the Macedonian frontier. The intense feeling in Greece against the powers, especially against Germany, on account of the foreign interference to prevent the occupation of Crete, threatened to disturb the peace of Europe. Germans in Greek cities were treated with marked inhospitality.

The brave stand of the Greek king in behalf of the Christian insurgents of Crete, and his announced determination to secure Cretan autonomy, under Greek auspices, aroused great admiration in England and in the United States, also in France and Italy. The concert of the powers in coercing Greece, was made more difficult to preserve in the face of popular sympathy with the Cretan cause, and popular hostility to the Turk.

The forces of insurgents with the Greek reinforcements in Crete amounted to about 40,000 men; with the provisional resources in the island, and the munitions furnished by Greece, they could exist indefinitely. Even the powers could not defeat nor dislodge them without an invading army far superior in numbers. Canea, the principal port, was blockaded by the war ships of the Powers, but it was surrounded landward by the Cretan army, so that if but for a day the naval demonstration should cease the city could be stormed. In considering the

relative strength of Greece and Turkey the Greeks confidently counted upon the assistance of about 100,000 Hellenic subjects of the Sultan in the different parts of the Empire; upon the certain disaffection of the Armenians, and upon the sympathies of Christendom for any Christian State when arrayed against a Mohammedan State. Although inferior to Turkey as to the numbers of her land force, and but a little more than equal in her naval force, Greece by her aggressive initiative aroused the hope of the English, American and other Christian peoples that she might defeat Turkey, and perhaps drive that power out of Europe. It was announced March 6, 1897, that Bulgaria had offered to join Greece and Servia in an allied attack upon Turkey, and that Greek infantry, cavalry and artillery were being pushed to the frontier as fast as possible.

RECENT RUSSIAN EVENTS.

On May 26, 1896, Nicholas II. was formally crowned Czar, with all the pomp and pageantry of former coronations, but with an added splendor of display never before equaled. The coronation took place in the Kremlin, at Moscow. The processional pomp began on April 15, when the imperial regalia was removed from the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, to be sent to Moscow. The Czar and Czarina left St. Petersburg on May 17, arriving at Moscow the following day. They remained at the Petrofsky palace, receiving royal and distinguished guests, until May 21, when the state entry of the Kremlin took place. The entire route of the procession, over three miles, was a mass of elaborate decorations. On Sunday, May 24, the religious ceremony of consecrating the banner of the Empire occurred, but all the former pageantry was forgotten in the display of May 26, when the coronation itself took place. Nothing so lavish in display of royal wealth and jewels had ever before been witnessed, and the ceremony was conducted with every mark of regal splendor. In honor of his accession, the Czar issued a proclamation remitting fines, arrears of taxes, and punishment for minor

offenses. For two weeks following the coronation a continued round of fêtes and receptions was kept up. On May 30 the festivities were marred by a terrible catastrophe on the Khodynski plain. On that day the peasants assembled on the plain, which is

ple had gathered. It is not known what led up to the disaster, but the crowd began to push forward; those in front were crushed or trampled, the police present were powerless, and the official figures show that 1,360 were killed and 644 maimed and in-



CZAR IN CORONATION ROBES.

opposite the Petrofsky palace, to celebrate the occasion. Large booths had been built from which to distribute memorial gifts to the peasants, and the crowd was much larger than expected, as fully 500,000 peo-

jured; but many have estimated the killed as high as 4,000, the majority being of the poorer classes, and many of them women and children. The expenses of burial of the dead were paid by the government, and

by order of the Czar 1,000 roubles were paid to each bereaved family, besides which large sums were contributed by the assembled royalty, for the children who had lost parents.

acres of land had been acquired by over 200,000 peasant families.

In 1891 Russia undertook a great work in the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. The western terminus of this road



THE CZARINA IN CORONATION ROBES.

An official report presented in 1896 indicated the success of a government experiment known as the "Peasant-Banks" established to assist the poorer people in the purchase of lands. In ten years 2,500,000

is in the town of Miask, in the province of Orenberg, east of the Ural Mountains, and the eastern terminus Vladivostock, on the Sea of Japan—a total of 4,785 miles. A great portion of the line runs through a

country very fertile but sparsely populated, and this territory the government hopes to colonize on the completion of the road, having appropriated 14,000,000 roubles in 1893 for this special purpose. The maximum cost of the completed line is put at \$183,825,000. This road has not only a commercial and industrial but a political significance as well, affording Russia remarkable facilities in case of a struggle for mastery over eastern Asia.

The fact that Russia was using every endeavor to strengthen her position in Asia was clearly demonstrated in 1896, when a secret treaty was entered into with China, by the terms of which Russia was said to have secured a port free from ice for the eastern terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. That Russia had tightened her hold upon China was shown in May, 1896, in the Che-Foo incident, when China acceded to the demands of Russia, without protest, in the question of certain land-concessions to Russian subjects, whose claims were recognized against the protests of citizens of other nations dwelling in China.

While the lives of Armenians under Turkish rule had been in constant menace, and while hundreds had been ruthlessly massacred, prior to the year 1897, the condition of the Armenians under Russian rule presented a marked contrast, as all reports showed that Russian-Armenian subjects were prosperous and contented, and that thousands of Armenian refugees from Turkish oppression had found refuge with their kindred just across the trans-Caucasian border.

In strong contrast to the evidences of advancement in modern civilization afforded by the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, the establishment of the Peasant-Banks, and the humane treatment of the Armenians in the Russian trans-Caucasus, was the persecution of the Jews in Russia, which increased under the rule of Nicholas II. In the latter part of 1895 the government issued a *ukase* that no college or school should be allowed to receive over five per cent. of Jews, and in Moscow and St.

Petersburg not over three per cent., among its students; and that no Hebrew should be allowed to embrace the Christian faith unless all of his blood relations did so as well. The Jews were driven into certain towns and certain parts of towns, and denied school privileges so as not to be able to meet the educational qualification which was necessary before any Hebrew was allowed to emigrate.

RECENT EVENTS IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Between May 2 and October, 1896, the Magyar portion of the dual empire celebrated the completion of one thousand years of its history as a distinct nation.

On April 18, 1896, Dr. Karl Lüger, the noted anti-Semitic leader, was elected burgomaster of Vienna, but through the influence of the Emperor was led to decline the office. On May 6 a compromise was effected by the election of Herr Strobach, a moderate anti-Semitic, as burgomaster, with Dr. Lüger as first vice-burgomaster.

One of the greatest engineering feats of the century was the completion of the removal in 1896 of the so-called "Iron Gates," which had formerly barred the Transylvania egress of the Danube, which now flows without impediment into the Black Sea. This work was first attempted by the Roman Emperor Trajan two thousand years ago. Its completion belongs solely to Hungary. The formal ceremonies of the opening of the channel occurred September 27, 1896, forming a climax to the Hungarian millennial celebration above mentioned.

RECENT EVENTS OF GERMANY.

On June 19, 1895, the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, connecting the Baltic and North Seas, was opened by Emperor William II. The ceremonies occurred at Hamburg, and there was a most elaborate naval display by all nations. This canal, which is a little over 61 miles in length, cost the government about \$39,000,000. It is 197 feet broad at the water-level and 72 feet 11½ inches at the bottom, the depth being 29 feet 6 inches. The first stone was laid June

3, 1887, and its construction gave employment to an average of 6,000 men for eight years. Aside from the commercial value of this water-way to German commerce, its strategic advantage in naval manœuvres can hardly be underrated, since by its use the entire German navy can be brought to any point on the German coast without passing through neutral waters.

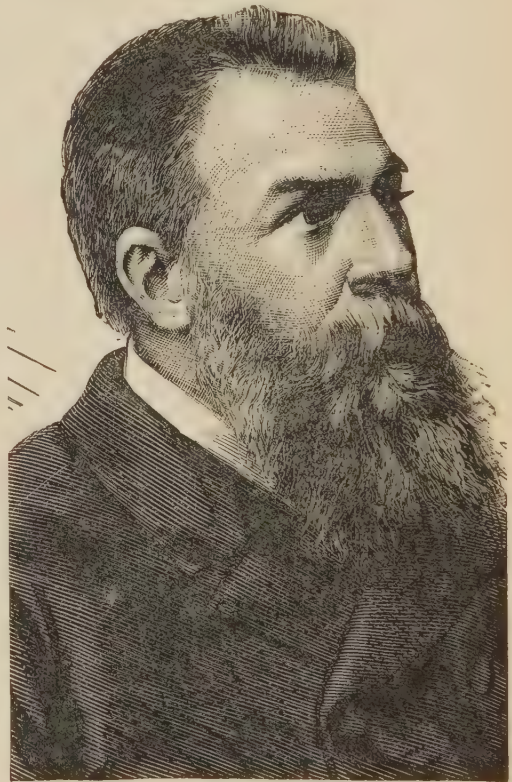
Early in 1896 Germany passed through a crisis which, for the time, promised a struggle between the crown and people. A plan of reform in the code of military procedure for the trial of military offenses had been adopted by most of the states, and was demanded by Prussia. It was submitted to the Emperor, and rejected by him. The Minister of War, General Von Schellendorf, resigned, and was succeeded by General Von Gossler. There was a chorus of popular dissent from almost the entire press, at the action of the Emperor, and there was a strong menace of conflict between the crown and Reichstag; however, after about a week the Emperor yielded to popular opinion by consenting to the reform measure demanded.

The imperial census taken in 1895 showed a decided agrarian depression in Germany, and that there had been a large increase in those engaged in trade and commerce from 1882 to 1895, amounting to 535,765 persons, and there had also been a marked increase, during the same period, in miners and metal workers—thus showing that Germany was turning from tilling of the soil to the above-named vocations.

RECENT AFFAIRS OF ITALY.

On May 8, 1895, King Humbert dissolved Parliament, and ordered a new election May 26, which resulted in the complete triumph of the Crispi government. Early in April, 1896, a royal decree was promulgated instituting a new form of government in Sicily for one year. A royal commissioner was appointed who practically exercised all the powers of the civil departments of the central government. Count Codronchi, a member of the Senate, was selected for this office.

Early in July, owing to the resignation of General Ricotti, Minister of War, the ministry was reconstructed, with Marquis di Rudini as President of the Council. About the middle of August, 1896, the Crown Prince of Naples was betrothed to Princess Hélén, third daughter of Nicholas, reigning Prince of Montenegro. The announcement was considered in Italy as bearing directly upon the political situation between Italy and Russia, as Montenegro had heretofore courted Russian favor.



MARQUIS DI RUDINI.

The desire of Italy to extend her dominion in Abyssinia led to her advance beyond the borders of Erythrea, and this fact was the moving cause of the resistance of the Abyssinians and a consequent war. From December 20, 1895, to January 23, 1896, Makale was the principal seat of operations. It was strongly fortified, but access to its wells was precarious. The garrison of 1,200 men was under the command of Colonel Galliano. The Abyssinians, after repeated attacks, in which they were repulsed

with heavy loss, intrenched themselves on the neighboring heights, and cut off the garrison from its water-supply. Menelek, King of the Abyssinians, was present in person; and the commander of the garrison, finding further resistance useless, accepted Menelek's terms of surrender, and was permitted to march out with all his arms and equipment and rejoin the main Italian army at Adigat. This left the way open for Menelek to advance against General Baratieri at Adigat, or to interrupt the Italian commander's communication with Massowah. Before moving his army, however, Menelek sent an envoy to the Italian camp offering terms of peace, which contemplated the abandonment by the Italians of all their positions outside of the original boundaries of their colony of Erythrea. Although General Baratieri had been authorized to conclude a treaty of peace his powers were strictly defined and he could not accede to the terms named. His conduct of the war had been for some weeks severely criticized by the Italian Parliament and press, and on February 24 he was deposed from the chief command by the War Department and constituted commander of one of the two divisions of the Abyssinian army. Two days later the name of General Baldissera was announced as commander. On March 1, while General Baldissera was on his way to Massowah with men and war material, General Baratieri advanced upon

Adigat in force, intending to defeat the Abyssinians before the arrival of his successor. The Italians early captured the passes leading to Adowa. The Abyssinian army, under the command of King Menelek, numbered about 60,000 well-armed men, and the force of the Italians was from 20,000 to 25,000. They attacked Menelek blindly, and after a desperate strug-



gle the Italian army was broken up and forced to retreat, leaving 52 pieces of artillery and thousands of rifles, together with many dead and wounded, on the field, and the survivors headed for Adigat in precipitate flight. The loss in killed was about 3,000, while a large number were wounded.

The Abyssinians were evidently content with their signal victory, for they made no attempt at pursuit. The report of the

disaster was received with popular rage in Italy, and Premier Crispi immediately resigned, and on March 8th was succeeded by the Marquis di Rudini. The latter immediately reopened negotiations for peace with Menelek, evidently to gain time, for a new army was gathered and the co-operation of England obtained, the latter determining to dispatch an expedition against the Khalifa, as the successor of the Mahdi in the Soudan is called; one avowed purpose of the expedition being to save Italy from defending Kassala against the Dervishes. At the end of March it was estimated that there were 15,000 Dervishes investing Kassala. A mixed Italian and native battalion conveying a caravan from Kassala to Massowah was attacked by 5,000 Dervishes, who were twice defeated. The Dervishes retired to Osobri, on the Nubian side of the Atbara, leaving their wounded and stores. King Menelek, having learned that the peace negotiations were for the purpose of gaining time, withdrew his offers, and ordered the Italian envoy made prisoner



MENELEK, KING OF ABYSSINIA.

as a spy. On May 4 it was reported that Adigat had been relieved by General Baldissera, and the Italian government determined to reopen the peace negotiations with Menelek. On May 19 the troops that had occupied Adigat were withdrawn behind the frontier of Erythrea, and Men-

elek gave up all the Italian prisoners remaining in his hands. The conclusion of peace was attributed to the good offices of the Emperor of Russia and the Pope. Throughout the entire war the Czar had



SIGNOR CRISPI.

avored the cause of Menelek, though professing sincere friendship for Italy. On May 9 the radicals in the Italian Parliament demanded the impeachment of Premier Crispi, but the demand was rejected by a most decided vote. General Baratieri was court-martialed and found not guilty.

RECENT AFFAIRS OF FRANCE.

During the early portion of 1896 the complete separation of Church and State was strongly agitated in France, and the demand was favorably regarded by the government.

In February, 1896, a conflict began between the Senate and Cabinet and Chamber of Deputies, caused by M. Ricard, Minister of Justice, removing M. Rempier and placing Judge Poitevin in his stead, to conduct the great Southern Railway investigation. The conservative republicans were also dissatisfied with the radical tendencies of the Bourgeois cabinet,

and took advantage of the incident above to attempt the overthrow of the ministry. On April 23, 1896, the ministry tendered their resignations to President Faure, who promptly accepted them, and requested M. Méline, on April 28, to form a new ministry, which was done, the new members

Although the French had annexed Madagascar, which mostly affected only the Hovas government, the savage tribes of the island had never really acknowledged that government, and still considered themselves free. As a result, these tribes were treated by the French government as common



M. FELIX FAURE.

being conservatives, who in the struggle with the ministry had upheld the Senate in its right to a decisive voice in the conduct of the government. On April 30 the new ministry outlined its policy, which was approved by the Chamber of Deputies by a decided majority.

highwaymen, and were attacked and killed by the French troops wherever found.

The annexation of Madagascar by the treaty with the Hovas government proved prejudicial to American citizens who had proposed to explore certain gold-fields, but were notified by both the American

and British consuls at Tamatave that the French government would not allow it. England was presumed to be in union with the United States, but the position of the latter was different, from the fact that the United States never acknowledged the French protectorate of Madagascar of 1890.

John L. Waller, ex-consul of the United States at Tamatave, after an imprisonment of eleven months for intriguing against the French government, was pardoned by President Faure February 12, 1896.

RECENT AFFAIRS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Owing to popular agitation on the subject, a committee of nine was appointed by the British Parliament in 1892 to investigate the question of abolishing the Indian revenue on the sale of opium, which amounted to £2,775,000 in gold. This committee reported, early in 1895, against the abolition, on the grounds that it was not practicable—that it was a mild form of opium, and that it was the national medicine.

About the end of August, 1896, the British government released from imprisonment four of the "dynamiters" convicted of treason-felony in 1883, and undergoing sentences of life imprisonment. They were Thomas Devaney, John Daly, Albert George Whitehead, and Dr. Thomas Gallagher, formerly of the United States. All of these men except Daly were in feeble health, and showed signs of insanity. Their release called forth attacks upon the government by some of the conservative members of Parliament, but an official explanation showed that the action was based on a medical report that further confinement would prove fatal to the prisoners.

On the death of Hamid bin Theoain, Sultan of Zanzibar, August 25, 1896, Said Kalid Barghash, a cousin of the dead ruler, with an armed force seized the palace and proclaimed himself Sultan; but Zanzibar being under a British protectorate, English forces were landed from the ships of war, and as the usurper refused to accede to the British ultimatum, the palace was bom-

barded by the British on August 27, and destroyed. The usurper took refuge in the German Consulate, and after considerable correspondence between the German and English representatives Hamoud bin Mahomed was proclaimed successor to the Sultanate, under the continued British protectorate.

On September 23, 1896, the reign of Queen Victoria became the longest in the history of Great Britain, she having on that date completed a continuous reign of fifty-nine years, three months and three days.

On July 7, 1896, the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company of Boston, Mass., the oldest military organization on the American continent (organized in 1637), visited London as the guests of the Honorable Artillery Company of London. They were received by the Queen and entertained in many ways. This visit was of international importance, showing the friendly feeling between the two countries.

In 1896 the crops in an area of 25,000 miles of India, containing a population of 13,000,000 people, failed for the third consecutive year, and although British rule in India up to that time had been characterized by the clever manner in which one famine district had been supplied from its more fortunate neighbors, the government was not able to supply the suffering within this district until thousands had died.

Following directly in the wake of this famine, and in a great measure arising therefrom, came the black plague, a most deadly pestilence; and its ravages spread with such great rapidity that almost the entire country was visited by it and thousands were swept away by its ravages.

While that part of Asia under British rule was suffering from famine and plague as above, the cattle plague had played havoc with the cattle in British-African possessions. Rinderpest had found its way into Abyssinia through cattle sent to supply food to the Italian army in that country, and having once gained a foothold it spread southward from the mountains of Rasselas,

until it was estimated that nine-tenths of all hoofed animals, both domestic and wild, had died. In Rhodesia alone, out of two hundred thousand cattle but fifteen thousand were left. Nothing was able to stay this plague until it had almost devastated the entire country from north to south.

THE SOUTH-AFRICAN REPUBLIC.

Late in 1895 an affair occurred in the

The beginning of the revolt against this state of affairs was in Johannesburg, a city of 60,000 inhabitants in the center of the richest gold-mining region in the republic. Dr. L. S. Jameson, Administrator of Bechuanaland for the South-African Chartered Company, was invited to provide a nucleus for an armed force for the malcontents, and invade the Transvaal. He crossed the frontier about December 29, 1895, at the head of



MAP OF THE SOUTH-AFRICAN REPUBLIC.—(Transvaal).

Dutch South-African Republic (the Transvaal), which but for the prompt action of the British government would have involved serious consequences. The Uitlanders (foreign residents of the Transvaal) had for many months been dissatisfied with the administration of government affairs by the Boer or Dutch officials; for although the Uitlanders far outnumbered the Boers, they had no voice in legislation.

from 700 to 800 armed men, and marched towards Johannesburg. The Boer government, being fully advised of the intended movement, had summoned a strong force, much superior in numbers to that of the invaders, whom they attacked from an advantageous position. The fact that Jameson and his men were worn out by forced marches told against them, and although they fought bravely they were defeated and

compelled to surrender, the Uitlanders along the line of march having failed to render any material assistance or encouragement. Dr. Jameson and his men surrendered January 2, 1896, and were taken to Pretoria and confined in prison. Their loss was



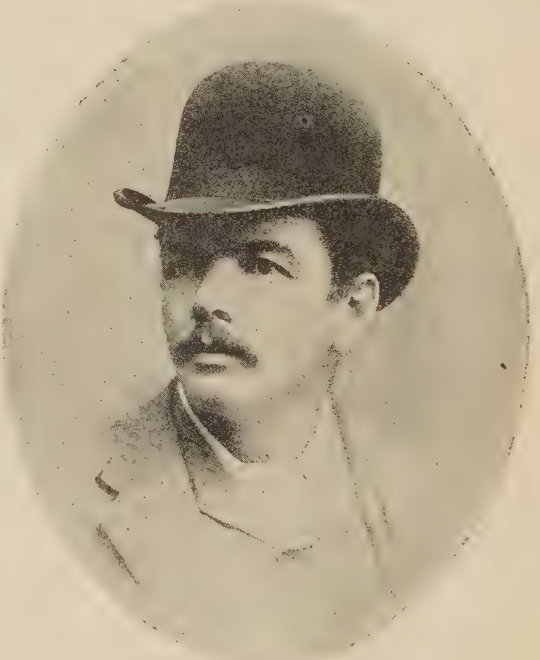
MR. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.

about 65 killed and 40 wounded, while the Boers are said to have suffered a loss of only five killed and three wounded. As soon as news of the uprising was received in England, the British Colonial office, through its Secretary Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, quickly disavowed any connection with the movement, openly repudiated Jameson's act, and called on the British South-African Company to do the same. This resulted in the removal from office of Dr. Jameson, and the resignation of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, the Premier of Cape Colony, a man credited with most ambitious designs with regard to British territorial advancement in Africa.

During the month of January, following the capture of Jameson and his men, over fifty arrests were made of the reform committee in Johannesburg, including Colonel Francis Rhodes, a brother of the Premier, and John Hays Hammond, an American mining engineer.

In the meantime the members of Jameson's force had been turned over to the British authorities, sent to England and arraigned on the charge of having violated the foreign enlistment act in engaging in a military expedition against a friendly state.

At the trial the prisoners were found guilty and sentenced to different terms of imprisonment. Dr. Jameson's sentence of fifteen months was the highest, the majority being sentenced to three months. In the meantime the four members of the reform committee imprisoned in Pretoria—Colonel Francis Rhodes, Lionel Phillips, George Farrar, and John Hays Hammond—on being arraigned pleaded guilty of treason, but submitted a statement which while it confessed to having asked Dr. Jameson to come to Johannesburg, deplored his having entered the territory, as there was no urgent need of his so doing. Sentence of death was pronounced upon the four prisoners, but this was afterwards through diplomatic intervention changed to a fine of \$125,000 each, with privilege of returning to Johannesburg, under promise to abstain thereafter from interference in politics of the Transvaal. Colonel Rhodes refused to give



DR. L. S. JAMESON.

the promise, and was banished for life. The remainder of the prisoners (fifty-nine in number) were at the end of May ordered released on their taking oath that they





would never again interfere in the politics of the Republic.

The affair was thus happily terminated, although it came very near causing a complication between Great Britain and Germany, because of the hasty action of Emperor William II. in sending a telegram to President Paul Krüger of the Republic, congratulating him on the defeat of the raiders.

ex-Premier, having returned from the trial of the Transvaal offenders in England, visited the Matabeles in person with only three attendants, and through his personal influence arranged for settlement and the surrender of the rebels on satisfactory terms.

RECENT EVENTS OF SPAIN.

On June 3, 1895, an attempt was made to assassinate General Primo Rivera, Captain-



PRESIDENT PAUL KRÜGER.

In addition to the trouble in Egypt, and the Transvaal uprising, England had another serious revolt to confront in 1896. Following close upon the affair of the Transvaal in South Africa, the Matabeles around Buluwayo rose and massacred all the whites within reach. The force of these rebels was about fifteen thousand, and for a time they threatened Buluwayo. The trouble seemed ominous, but Mr. Cecil Rhodes, the

General of Madrid. Major Clavijo, an infantry officer, fired two shots at him with a revolver, resulting in serious wounds. Clavijo was arrested, tried by court-martial, and shot.

At the election in April 1896, the Cortes showed a majority clearly in favor of the Cuban war on the lines laid down by General Weyler. By the result of these elections the Conservative majority was greatly



YOUNG KING OF SPAIN—ALPHONSO XIII.

increased. The Liberals party charged great election frauds against the Cabinet, led by the Prime Minister Cánovas del Castillo, and some of the Liberal journals were suppressed. But the continuance of the Conservative régime was assured for at least five years unless there should intervene some revolution or a crisis sufficient to overthrow the Ministry. For a time the danger of revolution in Spain was intensified by the bitterness of the Liberal party, under the belief that they were defrauded. It may never be known what party had the legitimate majority. The only Liberal of note who was permitted to take his seat was Castelar. The affirmation of this statesman that the Liberal element was in a majority in Spain was construed as equivalent to a charge of fraud against the Ministry. In the conduct of foreign affairs, however, the influence of the revolutionary element at home had been a factor of difficulty with which to reckon. The costs of the Cuban war, hitherto wholly unsuccessful, the financial drain on the people's wealth and resources for the maintenance of the army and navy, the increase of Socialism in the Universities, and the growing opposition to the Jesuit influence, with various other causes, have operated to render unstable the tenure of Spanish Monarchy.

The Liberal cause in Spain has been embarrassed and discredited by the presence of a considerable anarchistic element, whose violent proceedings are used effectively by the Royalists against the entire Liberal programme, and in support of the reactionary policies. In June 1895 there occurred an outbreak of anarchism that shocked the nation. As a religious procession was about to enter the Church of Santa Maria, Barcelona, a bomb was thrown among the worshippers. The result was disastrous in the extreme. Eleven persons were killed and about forty more received wounds. Martial law was proclaimed in the city, and many subjects were arrested. Throughout the Kingdom unusual precautions were taken in fear of a general outbreak of anarchism. Many persons were arrested in

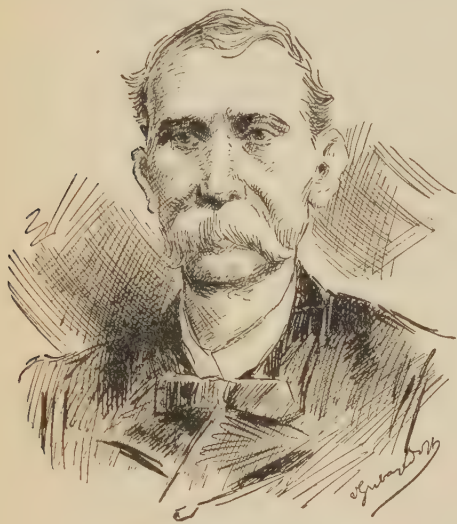
Barcelona, and several anarchists, implicated in the explosion, were garroted.

The foreign policies of Spain, especially her policy in prosecuting the Cuban war, has resulted in financial conditions that nearly threaten bankruptcy. The National debt, which in 1890 was more than 1,200 millions, has been increased since that date by loans and current obligations to a figure amounting to a per capita debt of nearly one hundred dollars. The Cuban revenues no longer form a reliable source of income. In these circumstances foreign observers have not hesitated to predict that changes amounting to revolution are certain not long hence to occur.

THE CUBAN REVOLUTION.

The ten-years' war in Cuba, which lasted from 1868 to 1878, was closed by a compromise which chiefly provided that the same reforms that had been instituted in Porto Rico should be extended to Cuba. These reforms, some of which were afterwards apparently instituted, were rendered inoperative to relieve the wrongs of which the Cubans complained. In fact the policy pursued by Spain brought about, though in a different way, the very hardships which had before existed. The island was allowed representation in the Spanish Cortes, on the strength of a royal decree issued June 9, 1878, at the conclusion of the long struggle for independence. The decree provided that Cuba should send one deputy for every 40,000 free inhabitants paying a certain annual tax, but the entire free population was so impoverished by the war, and the elections were so conducted in the island, pursuant to a decree of August 16, 1878, that few representative Cubans, in sympathy with the needs and aspirations of the island, were ever sent to Spain, their places almost invariably being filled by Spaniards having interests in Cuba. The former excessive taxes were in no wise remitted, but rather increased, for the revenues of the island were saddled with the entire expense of the ten-years' war. Besides this, the government offices were filled by Spaniards, to

the exclusion of the Cubans, except for the most unimportant positions; and to obtain even these it was said to be necessary to send money to high officials in Madrid. Again, the island was made the resort of young Spaniards who left the mother country to



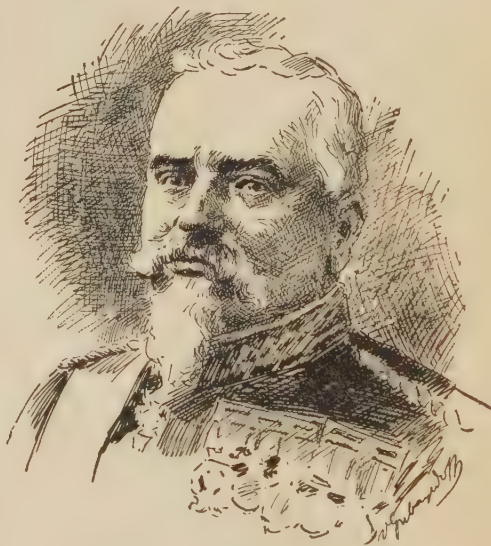
GENERAL MAXIMO GOMEZ.

join the militia in Cuba for the purpose of securing, by three years' service there, immunity from conscription and consequent five years' service in the Spanish army. This volunteer force, numbering about 50,000, was composed of young Spaniards, who in civil life filled the salaried positions it was claimed the young men of Cuba should hold. These and other minor grievances similar to those which were always more or less potent factors in Spanish colonial disturbances, aroused the Cubans to the revolt which began in February, 1895.

The leading spirit in the revolution in its earliest days was José Marte, who was killed in a skirmish in April, 1895. He had previously intrusted the chief command of the Cuban Army of Liberation to Maximimo Gomez, a veteran of the ten-years' war, who left his home in San Domingo, came to Cuba and began to organize the scattered bands of revolutionists into an army. General Gomez's leading aides were Calixto Garcia and Antonio Maceo, both of whom

were also engaged in the ten-years' struggle, and were thoroughly acquainted with the peculiar kind of warfare which had enabled their forces to hold out for so long a time against all the troops that Spain could send. A few months later a provisional government was announced, consisting of General Bartolome Masso, President of the Republic of Cuba; General Maximimo Gomez, Vice-President and Minister of War; General Antonio Maceo, General-in-Chief; Señor Gonzalo de Quesada, Secretary of Foreign Relations; and Marquis of Santa Lucia, Minister of the Interior.

The Spanish force, immediately available to put down the rebellion, consisted of 17,000 regulars and the volunteer militia numbering about 50,000; but these were immediately reinforced by troops from Spain under the command of General Martinez Campos, who was chief in command during the former revolution, and who, as Captain-General, was now again to direct military operations in the island. The in-



GENERAL MARTINEZ CAMPOS.

surgeons held none of the seaport towns of importance; they were wholly without war vessels, and consequently their operations were confined to the interior, and at first to the eastern and middle portions of the island. The government forces, by reason

of inadequate means of transportation into the interior and lack of knowledge of the country, were practically unable to locate and reach the revolutionists so as to bring on a decisive engagement. Desultory skirmishes were not infrequent, and these were apparently magnified into victories by each party for the effect such reports would have on the outside world. The expressed plan of the insurgents was to play a waiting game until the hot season should begin in May, when it was reasonably expected that yellow fever and other diseases incident to the heated term in the island would play havoc with the unacclimated Spanish soldiers, as had been the case in the last war.

Spain, being mistress in Cuban waters, at once took steps to prevent the revolutionists from securing munitions of war and reinforcements, especially from the United States, where the Cuban junta was located. She kept a close watch on all vessels going and coming, and early in the difficulty came near embroiling herself with the government of the United States by firing upon an American vessel, the *Allianca*, engaged in the West-Indian carrying trade. A protest brought forth an apology from Spain, but she by no means relaxed her vigilance, and even purchased several light draft vessels to patrol the coast more thoroughly.

There was much openly expressed sympathy for the Cubans in the United States, especially in the South and West; but the government at Washington took early occasion to warn its citizens and others against fitting out filibustering expeditions or doing other acts in violation of the treaty-rights existing with Spain. But in spite of warnings and precautions, the agents and friends of Cuba, who were very active, fitted out and dispatched several vessels which made landings at unfrequented points along the coast with reinforcements and munitions of war purchased in the United States. As a consequence of this and because of constant accessions to the ranks of the insurgents from the interior of

the island, their situation continued to improve, no military check of any importance having been suffered by them up to the close of the year 1895; and although Spain had been able to relieve her financial distress by effecting a large loan, and had continued to send reinforcements, it was an undoubted fact that the revolution was steadily gaining headway, and that a state of war actually existed.

Sentiment in the United States was very strong in favor of recognizing the insurgents as belligerents, and many business men favored a plan for the United States to guarantee bonds, which the Cubans were to



SEÑOR TOMAS ESTRADA PALMA.

issue, in order to raise money with which to purchase their freedom from Spain.

In the meantime the Cubans became more aggressive. Their operations, which were at first confined to the eastern and central provinces, were extended to the western end of the island, and to the very precincts of Havana. The evolutions of General Maximo Gomez and General Antonio Maceo seemed to afford a constant series of surprises to the Spanish, who were never able to engage the enemy in a pitched battle. The agents of the insurgents were also busy, and negotiations for vessels of war

were being conducted in Europe and America. In short, the revolution was fast gaining ground, and the failure to check it was ascribed to General Campos, who had seemed to act more in a spirit of conciliation than conquest. His enemies at home took advantage of the opening afforded, and brought about his recall, and General D. Valeriano Weyler was made Captain-

Spanish policy, however harsh, or the Spanish columns, by whomsoever led.

In the meantime resolutions were offered in the United States Senate and House of Representatives to the effect that the circumstances made it right and proper that the Cubans should be recognized as belligerents. These resolutions amounted to nothing more than an expression of opinion,



GENERAL WEYLER.

General in his stead. The latter laid out plans of extreme harshness, but the insurgents appeared not to be dismayed, since General Gomez, although seventy-two years old, and his dashing cavalry leader, Maceo, had already made more headway than in the former ten years of fighting, and had evidently inspired their followers with the belief in victory against

but the words of sympathy accompanying their discussion stirred up so much feeling in Spain against the United States that mobs were frequent, and an attack was actually made upon the American consulate at Barcelona, which prompted the Spanish authorities to close the universities in the latter city, as well as at Madrid and Cadiz. American flags were burned and trampled.

under foot, and the utmost vigilance was necessary to prevent attacks upon the consulates. But these asperities were softened by the somewhat conciliatory policy of Prime Minister Canovas del Castillo, who was evidently desirous of a peaceable solution of all difficulties through friendly negotiations, but who was nevertheless most firm and clear in his official statement of Spain's position toward Cuba, and with reference to the suggested offers of mediation by the United States.

Captain-General Weyler arrived in Cuba early in February; but before this time the insurgents had entered the westernmost province of the island, Pinar del Rio, and had established one of their centers of operation within fifty miles of Havana. Several garrisoned towns near the borders of Havana province surrendered to General Gomez, villages were burned, and a portion of the sugar-cane crop was destroyed. The tobacco crop was also destroyed a little later, it being the purpose of the revolutionists to deprive Spain of revenue and also to bring a commercial pressure to bear upon the United States by the scarcity of Cuban sugar and tobacco. Railroad tracks were torn up near Havana, and cars and bridges burned. Maceo, with reinforcements from the eastern provinces, was hastening to join Gomez in the west, and a Spanish force of 1,200 men was caught between Maceo's advance guard and Gomez's rear guard, and would have been annihilated but for the appearance of reinforcements, which also prevented the union of the main forces of the Cuban generals.

General Weyler on his arrival had issued a proclamation in which he practically established martial law in all towns held by the Spanish, and much more vigorous measures, both with reference to the rebels and non-combatants, were instituted. There were many rumors of acts of cruelty on the part of the Spaniards, which were invariably denied by them; but in the village of Punta Brava, near Havana, several unarmed and unresisting men were killed by Spanish troops, and clear evidence of the

affair was secured by the investigations of a newspaper correspondent and his interpreter, both of whom were arrested by the Spaniards to prevent a narration of the facts; but their release soon followed. There were also rumors of midnight executions of captured rebels at the Cabanas fortress, Havana, which reports, however, the Spaniards also vigorously denied, and a rigorous censorship was exercised to prevent any news from leaving the island unless favorable to the government.

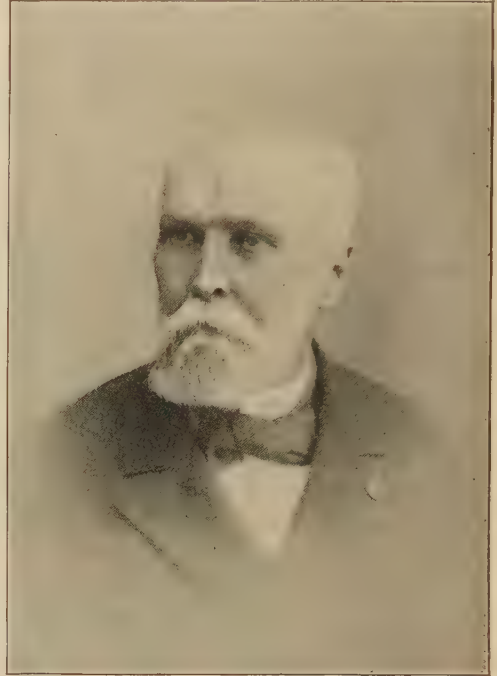
Thus far it was claimed that the war had cost Spain \$60,000,000, and an estimate of the opposing land forces gave the government over 100,000 and the insurgents over 40,000, a majority of the latter being cavalry, and fairly well armed. Both Gomez and Maceo were hovering about the province of Havana, engaging in frequent skirmishes, destroying villages, crops, railroads, and bridges. On March 17 a Spanish column was defeated in Pinar del Rio province in a dashing cavalry attack by Maceo's men, and a few days later Gomez captured the city of Santa Clara, the sixth in size in the province, but evacuated it after securing a large amount of supplies and ammunition. On the other hand, a strong rebel camp and a hospital in the Santa Clara district were captured by the government forces a few days later. About this time also the steamship *Bermuda*, bearing General Garcia with reinforcements and a large amount of munitions of war for the revolutionists, was successfully landed on the coast of Cuba; and the steamer *Three Friends*, from Tampa, Florida, with officers and men and an important cargo of arms and ammunition, was also landed.

The resolutions, as finally passed by both branches of the United States Congress, declared that in the opinion of Congress a condition of public war existed between Spain and the government proclaimed, and for some time maintained, by force of arms by the people of Cuba; and that the United States should maintain a strict neutrality between the contending powers, according to each the rights of belligerents in the

ports and territories of the United States, and that the friendly offices of the United States should be offered by the President to the Spanish government for the recognition of the independence of Cuba. This resolution was not binding upon the President, but simply an invitation for him to proceed in the case; but his views, and those of the Secretary of State, as later expressed, were to the effect that the time was not yet ripe for the full recognition of Cuban belligerency, and that in the present temper of the Spanish people there was slight chance of the acceptance of a tender of friendly offices in behalf of the Cubans engaged in carrying on an insurrection. The position of Spain, as laid down by Prime Minister Canovás del Castillo, was to the effect that the island must be reduced to a state of submission to Spanish authority before reforms could or would be instituted; and the government, notwithstanding her expressions of regret for popular demonstrations against the United States, was alive with preparations for a possible rupture. War ships and the training squadron were put in readiness, and many merchant vessels were armed as privateers; it was also frequently stated in Madrid that the recognition of Cuba by the United States would be followed by a firm protest from all the European powers.

In the meantime reinforcements from Spain had continued to arrive in Cuba, and Captain-General Weyler had established the *Trocha*, or fortified line of twenty-two miles crossing the island from north to south near Havana; and at La Chuza in Pinar del Rio province, not far from the *Trocha*, an important battle was fought on April 14. The revolutionary forces under General Maceo defeated the Spaniards, with a loss of 450 killed and 500 wounded, and drove the fugitives to the sea, where they were finally rescued by a war ship which opened fire upon the pursuing Cubans. Just previous to this, however, Maceo had attempted to capture the fortified town of La Palma, held by the Spaniards, and was repulsed with heavy loss. The wrecking of trains and bridges by dynamite, the

burning of sugar-cane, tobacco and cotton still went on, and there were frequent skirmishes with rebel bands up to the latter part of April, when General Munez, of the Spanish forces, marching to attack General Garcia in Santiago province, was himself



GENERAL, CALIXTO GARCIA.

attacked by the latter, and defeated with a loss of 200 killed and 400 wounded. Early in May General Inclon attacked one of Maceo's forts at Carcarajicara, and was defeated with severe loss; and a little later the town of Punta Brava, near Havana, was burned by the insurgents, and other villages were also destroyed by them. A little later Maceo made a night attack upon the *Trocha* and succeeded in breaking through, thus demonstrating that General Weyler's fortified line was by no means invulnerable, as subsequent events also proved, for the insurgents passed through it repeatedly from time to time.

Meanwhile filibustering expeditions organized by the Cuban junta in the United States had become more frequent, and some of them were successful; but the schooner *Competitor*, with a small rebel band, and

carrying dynamite, cartridges, and rifles, was captured while trying to land on the Cuban coast. The captain and five of the crew were tried by a naval court-martial, and condemned to death. One of the men was an American, two others claimed to be



ANTONIO MACEO.

such, and the fourth was an Englishman. The United States strongly insisted that the Americans should be tried by a civil tribunal, in accordance with treaty-rights, which was finally granted, after much protest; yet the affair at one time promised a serious rupture between the two countries. Successful landings were made by other filibustering craft, among them the *Laurada*, *Three Friends*, and *Bermuda*, while the *City of Richmond* and the *Horsa* were apprehended by the authorities of the United States, and the captain of the latter was fined and sentenced to sixteen months' imprisonment.

At this time the military situation showed little signs of Spanish success. The regular Spanish army in Cuba at the beginning of the war numbered 17,000, but at this time it numbered not less than 130,000 regulars and 63,000 volunteers, which together with police and others increased it to over 200,000 men, of whom at least 40,000 had died or

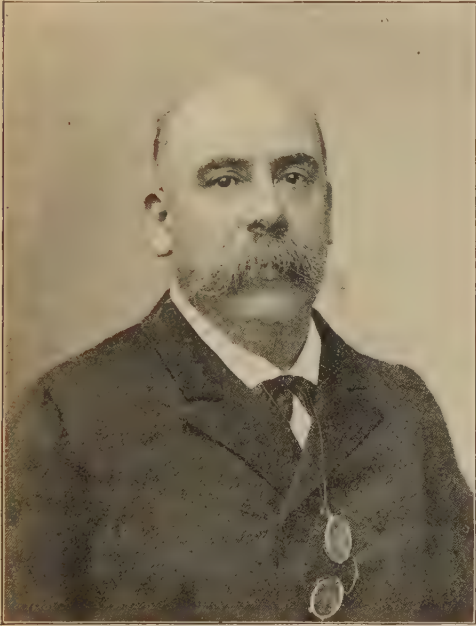
were in hospitals. The Cubans had about 50,000 men in the field, although they claimed 65,000, either estimate being a very large proportion for a population of between 1,700,000 and 1,800,000 from which the insurgent forces were drawn. Spain had spent \$100,000,000 and her financial affairs were in a distressing state, although she had managed to negotiate a loan of \$20,000,000. The revolution was supported chiefly by contributions from the Cuban organization in the United States and from voluntary gifts to the cause; yet with all the difference in resources, the government seemed to be constantly but slowly losing ground.



TYPICAL CUBAN SOLDIER.

The rebels indeed were becoming more and more aggressive, and frequent attacks were made upon the *Trocha*. General Inclon was sent out to disperse them, but was led into an ambush by General Antonio Maceo, captured, and held as hostage to save the lives of insurgents in the hands of

the Spaniards. There was much desultory fighting along the *Trocha* and in the immediate vicinity of Havana, but the most important victory thus far achieved or claimed by either side was that of General Robi, of the insurgents, over a Spanish force which was surrounded and cut to pieces, and a valuable convoy captured, with provisions, ammunition, and several thousand dollars in money. On September 29 a general attack was made on the rebel positions in the province of Pinar del Rio, in which, although no decisive action took place, the insurgents were in several cases dislodged and scattered; but no important results fol-



SEÑOR EMILIO CASTELAR.

lowed, and General Weyler at length took the field in person. But in the very short campaigns he made, little was accomplished.

The policy of the United States with reference to the contest still remained the same. The President in his annual message to Congress plainly indicated a plan of postponement, which would probably have had popular acquiescence but for the report that the dashing Cuban leader, General Antonio Maceo, who was killed in a skirmish, had been betrayed while under the protection of a flag of truce, and shot to death by the Spaniards. Public indignation ran high,

and a resolution was introduced in Congress expressly recognizing the independence of Cuba, and offering to Spain the friendly offices of the United States to bring the war to an end, which resulted in an argument as to whether the Chief Executive or Congress had the right to recognize a new State. On the death of Maceo, at first denied but afterwards confirmed, General Rivera, also a veteran of the ten-years' war, assumed command, and early in January, 1897, in his first encounter with the Spanish, gained a creditable victory.

At the beginning of the year 1897 the administration of Spanish affairs in Cuba by General Weyler and his associates was evidently far from satisfactory to the government at Madrid. Undoubted proofs of acts of oppression and inhuman conduct towards prisoners and even non-combatants had been secured, in great part through the efforts of American journalists in Cuba. While these acts may have been in accord with Spanish policy in dealing with colonial rebellion, they were nevertheless the cause of the most bitter feeling in the United States, and served to spur both press and public to expressions of denunciation of Spanish aims and Spanish methods in general, and of her conduct toward Cuba in particular. But more important still were the direct accusations of certain Spanish newspapers to the effect that the funds sent from Spain to carry on the war, and especially to feed the soldiers in the field and care for those in the hospitals, had been diverted by the Captain-General and his colleagues to their own private uses. The government was forced to take notice of so grave an accusation, especially with a view to its moral effect on other countries. The newspapers which made the statements were promptly suppressed, but steps to investigate were at once taken to appease popular clamor, and if possible to disprove the charges, which, if true, could not fail to discredit Spain and her colonial policy in the eyes of all civilized nations. The accusation of corruption undoubtedly did much to shake the faith of the government in the

administration of Cuban affairs, and the promises of General Weyler that the island would soon be pacified, especially as these promises were almost immediately followed by a great victory for the insurgents in the capture of Santa Clara on January 9, 1897. General Gomez with a large force was pressing slowly on toward Havana. The government was hard beset, and seemed inclined to relax a little from the proud position she had thus far held. Other forces were also



GENERAL RIVERA.

urging her in this direction. There was a revolt in the Philippine Islands; finances were in a deplorable condition; there was discontent at home, and the attitude of the American people was threatening. Since the beginning of the war the commerce of the United States had suffered greatly, and therefore, outside of the promptings of humanity and a general desire for Cuban success, there were strong commercial reasons why the United States should use every

endeavor to bring the deplorable conflict to an end. Spain had steadily contended that the island must be pacified before any reforms could be carried into effect or even discussed, while the revolutionary leaders had declared that nothing short of absolute independence would be considered. But diplomatic pressure, which had all along been exerted, was so successfully brought to bear upon Spain that in January, 1897, a plan of self-government, similar to that of Canada, was practically agreed to for the Cubans, they to remain under Spanish sovereignty, but to have control of the offices and finances of the island; and it was confidently thought that even the most radical of the revolutionists would in time be willing to accept this proposed amelioration of their condition. But the Cuban leaders, by their successes and their demonstrated ability to maintain the war, confident of final victory, at once announced that no reforms would be accepted as a substitute for absolute freedom. General Gomez and other prominent Cubans asserted that the revolution was directed against Spanish rule of itself, and that no reforms administered by Spain could be considered. When it became apparent that Cuba would accept nothing short of absolute autonomy the reform programme was definitely abandoned.

Minor engagements between the Spanish and Cuban forces demonstrated that the Cubans were constantly improving their condition. Gomez announced that his troops were well armed and supplied with ammunition. The appearance of Cuban cavalry and even infantry in an attack upon the lines close to Havana, proved that the insurgents were becoming daily bolder and more active. The claim of General Weyler that the Island was being pacified was discredited almost daily by the reports from the field.

In February 1897, Sanguilli, an American citizen, was taken by the Spanish authorities and in danger of being executed. On demand of the United States Govern-

ment he was released and given his passport. It was rumored that this incident had led to the resignation of Weyler. During the same month, another American, Ricardo Ruiz, was imprisoned in Havana, and suffered cruelties under which he finally died. American correspondents reported these incidents, and the United States Consul in Havana brought them to the attention of the Government. These reports constantly increased the popular feeling

the beginning of 1897 was as follows: President, Salvador Cisneros Betancourt; Vice-President, Bartolme Maso; Secretary of War, Carlos Roloff; Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Rafael Portuondo y Tamayo; Secretary of the Treasury, Severo Pina; Secretary of the Interior, Santiago Canizares.

REVOLT IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

In August, 1896, the Philippine Islands were the scene of another revolt against



CÁNOVAS DEL CASTILLO.

against Spain, on the part of the American people. Nevertheless, the administration of Mr. Cleveland closed without any definite action in behalf of Cuba. The announcement March 6th, that the new Administration would dispatch a war vessel to Cuban waters, together with President McKinley's treatment of the Cuban question in his Inaugural address, created more or less uneasiness at the Spanish Consulates; and considerably affected American markets.

The Cuban revolutionary government at

Spanish rule. The uprising had evidently been long planned, and in some of its features reads like a romance. It appeared to be the same story of conquest, oppression, and cruelty which has cost Spain nearly all the colonial possessions which Magellan, Cortez, Pizarro and other discoverers and conquerors added to her domain, making her the richest and most powerful nation in Europe. The many islands of which Manila is the capital have been under the joint government of Church and State, but

with the Archbishop superior to the Governor. The natives had always been a submissive, pleasure-loving people, with a most vivid impression, carefully conveyed by both their civil and religious rulers, of the power and grandeur of Spain. There never had appeared a leader capable of inspiring the people with the belief that their freedom was possible, and of arousing them to anything like organized resistance to the government. But that leader at last seemed to have arisen in the person of Francesca Venezuela, who formed a plan for the expulsion of the Spaniards and the establishment of a republic. He first won the favor of many of the wealthy half-



castes in the island, and carried on the work of preparing the natives by first sounding the note of freedom in the mountainous interior, where no Spaniard had ever set foot. He organized the "Sons of Freedom," sworn to free the Philippines from the Spanish yoke. He procured from Hong Kong large quantities of munitions of war, which were secretly stored in the islands; but when, with a large proportion of the native inhabitants at his command, he was about ready to strike, he committed the fatal error of writing to the Japanese government for assistance and co-operation. His letter was promptly turned over to the Spanish Governor at Manila, who, being

forewarned of the revolt, at once took steps to defeat it and to discover who were the leaders. Venezuela was arrested at his house, and with three companions sentenced to be shot. Freedom and safe-conduct, however, were promised him if he would tell who were his associates in the revolt. He promptly refused, and the sentence was carried out.

The death of their leader seemed to arouse the natives rather than dishearten them. They had previously made an attack upon the government magazine across the river from Manila. They were repulsed here, but almost immediately afterwards captured the Monastery of Covite, the largest religious house in the islands, and immediately across the harbor from Manila. After this event the insurgents displayed no little strategic ability by retreating to the mountains, all the while inflicting considerable loss upon the pursuing Spaniards, who were also victims to the mountain and swamp fever. The insurgents numbered many thousands, and were well armed and equipped, owing to the efforts and foresight of their martyred leader Venezuela. Spain sent a large force to the islands, but the revolutionists adopted the same plan of warfare which was so successfully employed in Cuba, and up to March, 1897, the government troops had been able to make no material headway toward suppressing the revolt.

THE WEST INDIES.

During the latter part of 1895 a number of incipient rebellions occurred in San Domingo in the West Indies, and several of the agitators were captured and shot. President Hyppolite died suddenly March 24, 1896, which further complicated political affairs in Hayti. Simon Sam, Minister of War, was elected to succeed him. There was a serious riot in St. Kitts, February 17, 1896, caused by labor troubles.

THE SOUTH-AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

For many years prior to 1893 there had been a feeling of unrest in Nicaragua, on

account of the political feuds and intrigues between the two principal cities, Granada and Leon. In 1888, Sarcaza, of Leon, was chosen President of the republic, and by his acts sought to be Dictator, which led to an uprising in 1891 which was quickly suppressed. Another revolt broke out in 1893, beginning on the 28th of April at Zavala, the headquarters being at Granada. A provisional government was formed, and a fight occurred near Granada on May 19, with a small loss in killed and wounded on both sides. President Sacaza at once made terms of peace with the revolutionary leaders, resigned his office and left the country. This affair came near involving the United States, as reports had been received that the Nicaragua canal work which was being prosecuted by the United States had fallen into the hands of the insurgents. The United States dispatched several war vessels to the scene of the trouble to look after and protect her interests.

During February, 1895, there was another outbreak in Nicaragua, against the government of President Zelaya, but in the first week in May the government troops succeeded in putting down the rebellion; and in September, 1896, a plot to assassinate President Zelaya was discovered and foiled by the government.

In January, 1895, there was a revolutionary outbreak in Colombia, arising from a political difference between the two leading parties. The rebellion was confined principally to three or four districts, and there were several engagements between the rebels and government troops; but the former were compelled to surrender in March.

In July, 1895, and again in November, revolutionary attempts were made in Venezuela to overthrow the existing government, but they were discovered and frustrated and some 5,000 men banished for treason. During the latter part of 1896 Venezuela adopted the gold standard of coinage, as did also Chili.

In May, 1896, the latter government signed a treaty of amity with Bolivia, which

provided for arbitration of future differences.

In September, 1896, the Chilean government sent a squadron to the island of Juan Fernandez to re-assert its ownership of that island, which had been leased to the Swiss, and was inhabited by Swiss and French. The Chilians feared the increasing strength of the former might have a tendency to weaken the government's ownership of the island.

In April, 1895, Ecuador added another to the long list of South-American revolutions. It was brought about by political differences, and culminated in an outbreak, precipitated by the alleged participation by Ecuador officials in the sale to the Japanese of the warship *Esmeralda* by the Chilean government. The rebellion rapidly assumed such proportions as to menace the existing government, and resulted in its overthrow in September, 1895. General Alfaro, who had led the rebel troops, was declared President of the new government, which had taken possession of Quito, and been recognized by a number of surrounding states.

In May, 1895, there was a revolution in Peru, and the malcontents attempted to form a new government. The operations of the insurgents were conducted with more or less success until March, 1896, when, after a two-days' battle, during which many were killed, the insurgents succeeded in capturing Lima, the capital. Through the intervention of the foreign diplomats and the Church, terms of peace were made and a new government was established.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

A treaty looking toward the formation of a federal union between the five states of Central America, under the title "The Greater Republic of Central America," was signed at Amalpa, Honduras, in June, 1895, by representatives of the governments of Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua. Guatemala and Costa Rica were not represented; but although they had refused to join the federation it was believed that they would ultimately come in.

MEXICO.

On July 13, 1896, Porfirio Diaz was elected President of Mexico for the fifth term of four years, by a pronounced majority of all votes cast, thus again placing the seal of well-deserved approval upon the governmental policy of this remarkable statesman. First elected to the Presidency in 1877, and not being able under the Constitution to succeed himself, he caused the election of his friend General Gonzales in 1880, whom he in turn succeeded in 1884; since which time, owing to the change in the constitution with reference to tenure of office, he has served three successive terms and has entered upon the fourth. The development of Mexico under his firm and wise administration has been rapid and remarkable, but nevertheless marked by a dignity and nobility contrasting strongly with other Spanish-American states. Where anarchy, brigandage, and consequent personal and financial insecurity, once prevailed, a strong central government has arisen, which is as safe for the tourist or for invested capital as is the United States. A generation ago there was not a railroad in Mexico: in March, 1897, there were forty different lines, with about seven thousand miles of track. The country is covered with telegraph lines, and the tariffs are the cheapest in America; while costly public buildings, free schools, important private enterprises, modern water-works, sewers, telephone service, and electric lighting, are the rule and not the exception in all the principal cities and many of the smaller towns. The wonderful mineral resources of the country have been developed with the richest results, but manufacturing and agricultural industries have been making such rapid strides as to indicate that from those sources will finally come the most stable and productive sources of national wealth. Immense cotton mills and other manufacturing establishments have been going up, while the cereals and coffee have become important factors in the national output.

On July 1, 1896, a most sweeping economic change was made by President Diaz,

in the abolition of the petty taxes and imposts which had so long burdened the poorer classes; the result of which change was to be a direct tax on land, which would have a tendency to break up the many large unimproved estates throughout the republic and result in extensive internal improvements. All in all, Mexico under the present administration has entered upon and already realized an era of prosperity which during the present generation at least has hardly seen a parallel on either continent.

During the summer of 1896 the railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec from coast to coast, work on which had been in progress in a desultory way for fifty-five years, was completed.

During the latter part of August, 1896, there was an uprising among the Yaqui Indians on the border between Mexico and the United States. Attacked by the Mexican forces the Indians fled across the border into the territory of the United States, but with the assistance of the United States forces they were overcome by the Mexican authorities, and the outbreak, which had evidently originated in an attempt to overthrow the government of President Diaz, was quelled.

THE VENEZUELAN BOUNDARY DISPUTE.

In 1885 a crisis arose between Great Britain and Venezuela regarding the boundary line separating the latter country from British Guiana—a question which had been long in dispute. The controversy dated back to 1814, when Great Britain acquired by treaty with the Netherlands the provinces of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. Venezuela originally claimed her limits to be those of the captaincy-general of 1810, but in a spirit of concession contented herself with claiming the line of the Essequibo River as the true boundary. Great Britain apparently acquiesced until 1840, when she commissioned Sir R. Schomburgk to lay out the boundaries, which he proceeded to do by including a large area which had before been considered by Venezuela a portion of her domain, and to the



PRESIDENT PORFIRIO DIAZ.

possession of which by Great Britain a vigorous protest was entered. After much diplomatic negotiation the monuments set up by Schomburgk were at last removed by the order of Lord Aberdeen. Other boundaries were from time to time suggested, but none agreed upon, until finally, in 1886, Great Britain returned to her contention of 1840, and claimed all the territory within the Schomburgk line. The controversy continued until 1894, when a Venezuelan force entered the disputed territory and raised the flag of the latter country at Yuruan. The following year the British police removed the flag, for which they were arrested but finally released, Great Britain setting up a demand for reparation somewhat in the nature of an ultimatum. The incident, while not of itself important, aroused great interest in the United States as foreshadowing action on the part of Great Britain to extend her territory by force against the rights of Venezuela and in opposition to the "Monroe doctrine," which had been for many years an unwritten rule of action by the United States, with reference to the encroachments of European governments on

United States; but it remained for James Monroe, the fifth President, to fully formulate these principles, which were then given his name and have ever since been known as the "Monroe doctrine." The specific enunciation and declaration of these principles by President Monroe was in a message to Congress, when he laid down in most explicit terms his ideas of the proper action of the United States in foreign affairs, as follows:

"We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and the allied powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any part of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere, but with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have on great consideration and just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States."

A breach between Great Britain and the United States at first seemed imminent, but more moderate counsels prevailed, and the latter government suggested to the former that the question of the Venezuelan boundary be submitted to arbitration. The proposition was at first resented by Great Britain as an unwarranted interference in her affairs, but finally, after much diplomatic correspondence, the terms of arbitration were agreed to in 1896, and were accepted by Venezuela, though not without some popular protest as to portions of the stipulations. The whole affair assumed importance from the fact that it constituted not only a practical admission, by a great European power, of the integrity and force of the Monroe doctrine, but also furnished gratifying evidence of a willingness on the part of an aggressive foreign nation to settle international disputes by friendly arbitration, rather than by an appeal to arms. President Cleveland appointed the following named citizens of the United States as



LORD SALISBURY.

American soil. The active principles of this doctrine were first promulgated by George Washington, first President of the

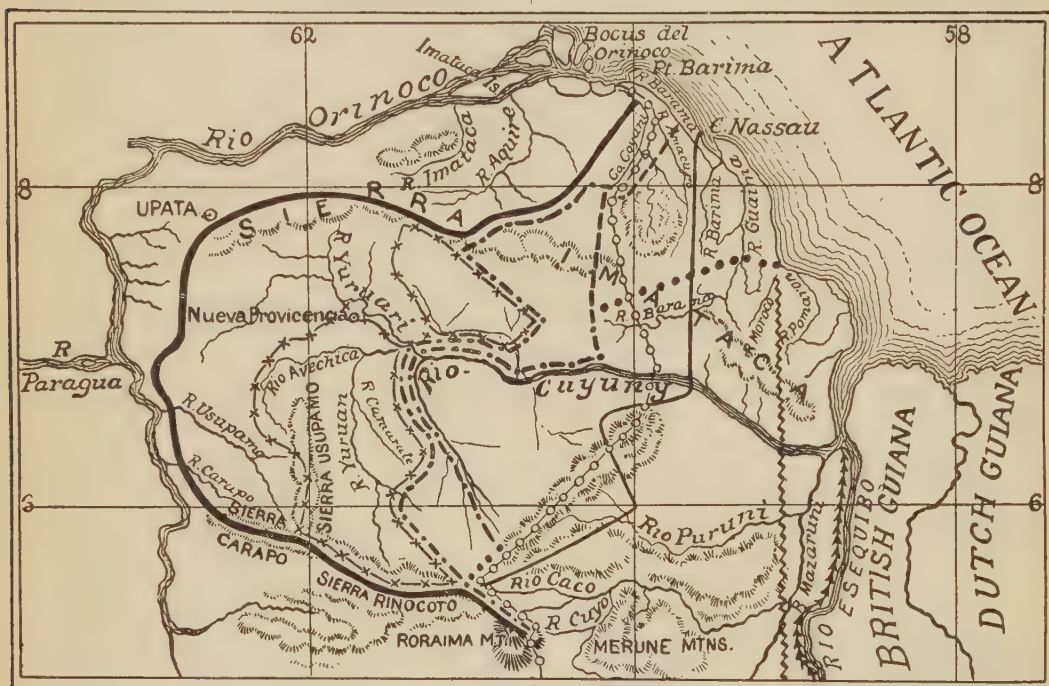
members of the Venezuela Boundary Commission: David J. Brewer, Kansas; Richard H. Alvey, Maryland; Andrew D. White, New York; Frederick Coudert, New York; and Daniel C. Gilman, Maryland.

Incidental to the peaceable settlement of the Venezuelan difficulty, the suggestion was made, and at once taken up for serious consideration, that all future disputes between the United States and Great Britain be submitted to general arbitration. This suggestion led to considerable diplomatic

and various amendments, the treaty was finally voted upon May 5th, 1897, but the necessary two-thirds vote for ratification could not be secured.

ALASKA.

In October, 1867, the possession of Russian America was formally turned over to the United States, and the country has since been called Alaska. It comprises the whole of North America from 141° W. Longitude to Bering Strait. The original boundary



EXPLANATIONS

- Extreme limit of England's present claim.
- Line of arbitration limited by England.
- Original Schomburgk line.
- Extension of Schomburgk line.

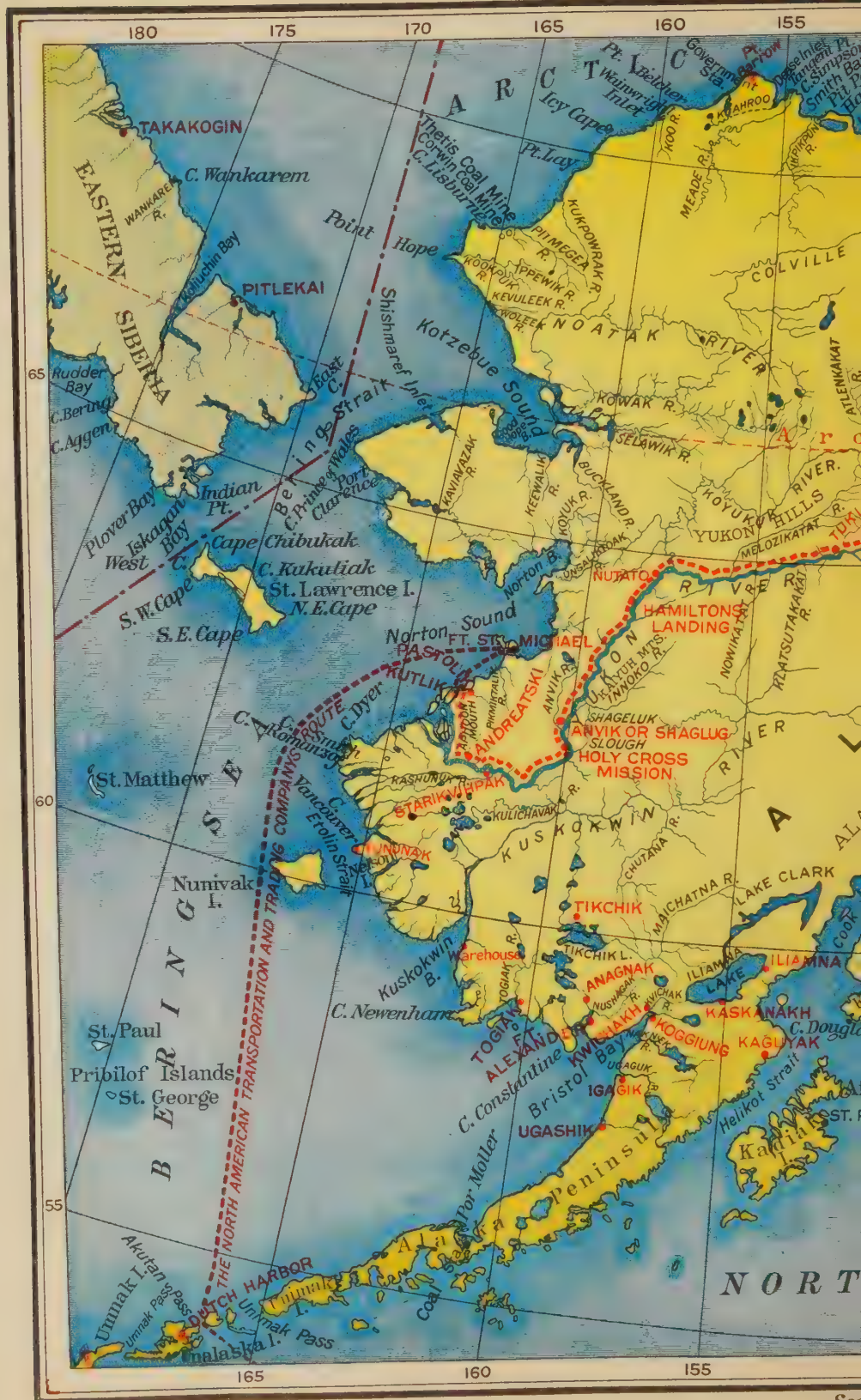
- The line proposed by Lord Granville.
- Line proposed by Lord Aberdeen.
- Line once proposed by Dr. Rojas, Venezuelan Envoy, as [a compromise].
- The first Rosebery line.
- Venezuela's Extreme Claim.

correspondence between the two powers, and on January 11, 1897, a treaty was signed, which provided, in substance, for the submission to arbitration of all questions not diplomatically settled. The provisions covered about every difference which might be construed into a *casus belli* by either country, and the press and public of both Great Britain and America seemed to be strongly in favor of arbitration. The United States Senate, however, was divided on the subject and, after much discussion

line extends from Demarcation Point, on the Arctic Ocean, to the vicinity of Mt. St. Elias, within about fifty miles of the North Pacific Ocean, whence it bears off to the east and south in an irregular course about thirty miles from the coast and terminates at the confines of British Columbia in 54° 40' N. latitude. The extreme length of Alaska from north to south is about 1,100 miles, from east to west about 800 miles, and the area is estimated at 580,107 square miles. This one possession nearly equals in size

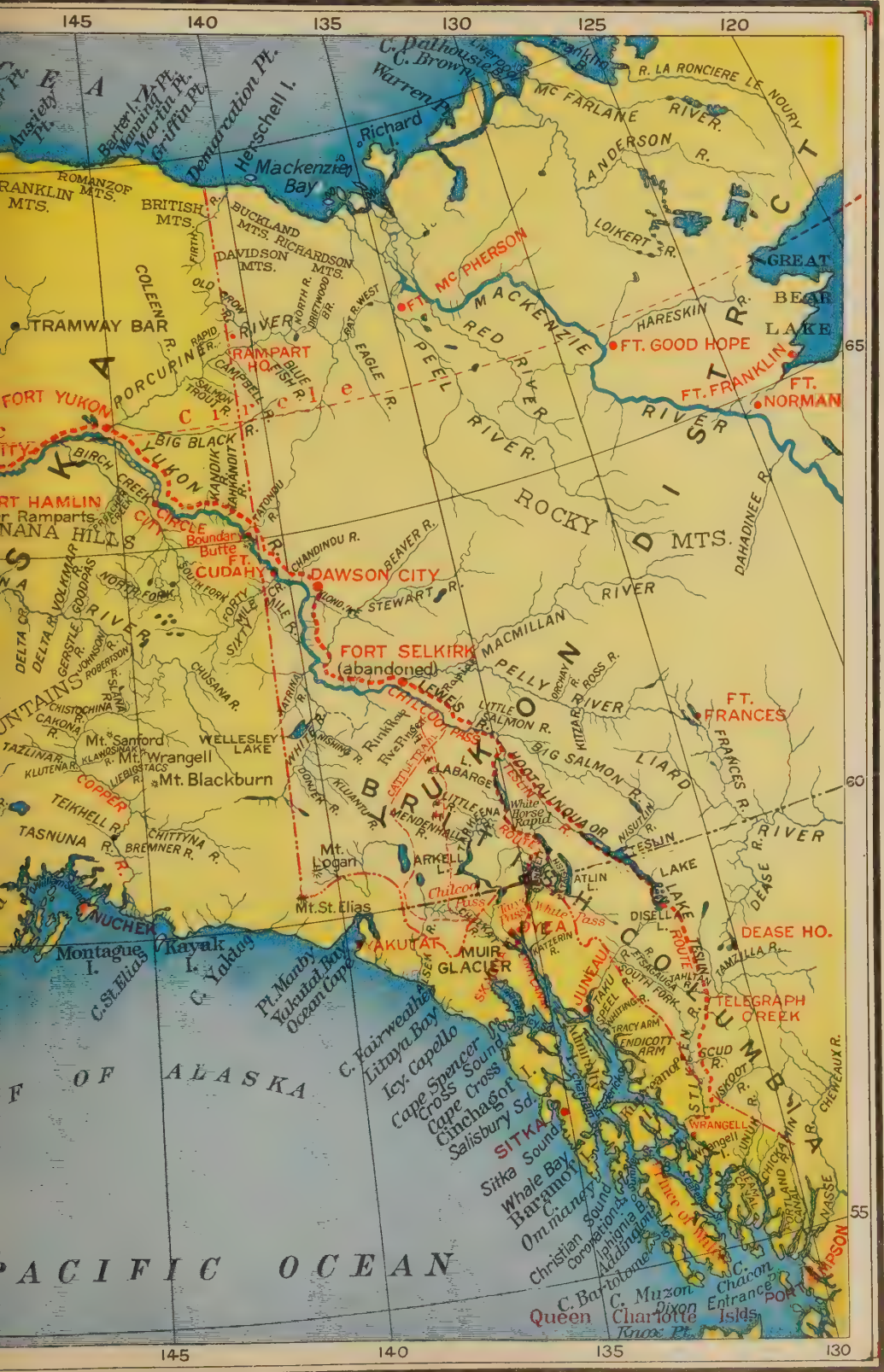
ALASKA AND THE NORTH PACIFIC

COMPILED FROM THE LATEST UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT SURVEY



YUKON DISTRICT.

U.S. & CANADIAN GOVERNMENT SURVEYS.



Scale in miles
0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200 220

the combined areas of the New England, Middle and Southern States east of the Mississippi River, and in 1890 contained a population of 1,513,017. While several hasty reconnoissances have been made through portions of the Territory, principally in the vicinity of the rivers, the central and northern parts remain unexplored, although valuable and interesting information has been furnished from time to time through government sources and from private expeditions and observation. The unsuspected resources of Alaska in furs, fish and gold, as well as the value of its lower coastline for purpose of access to the northwestern portions of the British Possessions, have been the cause of two complications between the United States and Great Britain. The first was the dispute with reference to the exclusive right of the United States to take seals in Bering Sea outside the three-mile limit, and included a claim of great Britain against the United States for the capture and exclusion of Canadian sealing vessels from these waters. This question was submitted to arbitration, and the respective rights of the two nations definitely settled. The United States, though successful with reference to securing an agreement to protect the seals during certain seasons of the year, was denied the exclusive rights to take them in Bering Sea, and adjudged to pay an indemnity to the Canadian sealers.

The second dispute refers to the boundary line from Mt. St. Elias to the southwest, and concerns a portion of the Alaskan territory originally ceded to the United States by Russia, and for the use of which the latter country had for twenty-eight years received a rental from the Hudson Bay Company. Great Britain, indeed, so far as known, had never set up any claim to this territory, either as against Russia or the United States, until about the year 1884, when the official Canadian maps indicated a new boundary much farther to the west than the original one, and taking in 28,500 square miles of territory, in which area was located the newly-discovered gold fields and the great fishing industries.

The possession of Alaska by the United States has already proved a most profitable national investment. The exclusive right to take seal in Alaskan waters was granted to the Alaska Commercial Company in 1870 on a favorable basis, and in 1890 the same right was granted to the North-American Commercial Company at an annual rental of \$60,000, besides a royalty for each fur-seal skin taken and shipped from the islands of St. Paul and St. George, and for each gallon of oil manufactured. Besides this, the fish-canning industry has developed to a most gratifying extent. The value of fur seal and other furs shipped from 1884 to 1890 was estimated at \$50,000,000, and the salmon produced at nearly 7,000,000, and in 1890 alone over 3,000,000 salmon were taken along the Alaskan coast.

But by far the most important incident in the history of Alaska since its purchase by the United States, was the discovery in September, 1896, of rich gold deposits in the Klondike region, so called from the Klondike river, a small stream which empties into the Yukon over 1,500 miles from its mouth and some distance above the point where the latter river crosses into the British Possessions. Since gold was first found in Alaska, as far back as 1866, it has been thought to exist throughout almost the entire territory, but owing to the hardship and danger of prospecting, and the difficulty and expense of mining, the industry did not prove successful for many years. In fact it was not until 1876 that a mining plant of any importance was established, its location being at the Stickeen River in the southeastern part of the territory, not far from Sitka. In 1880 gold was discovered in the vicinity of Juneau city, and the works of the Alaska Mining and Milling Company, the largest in the world, were built on Douglass Island opposite. This company is said to send yearly over one million dollars in gold bricks to San Francisco. Other auriferous outcrops were discovered on Admiralty and Unga Islands, at Unalaska and elsewhere, and in

1880 free gold in paying quantities was also found in the Silver Bow Basin in the Juneau district.

The first gold discovered in the Yukon region was at Forty Mile Creek in 1884, and a little later it was found at Circle City just south of the Arctic Circle, and a camp was established, but as late as 1893 Forty Mile Creek and Circle City were the only mining camps on the Yukon. Occasional finds kept the industry in a fairly flourishing condition, but the discovery of the placer deposits on Eldorado and Bonanza Creeks, tributaries of the Klondike, created an excitement all over the world second only to that of 1849. Never before in any country, not even in the famous Transvaal mines, was so much gold extracted in so short a time and with so little labor, and, as a consequence, nearly all of the other Alaskan districts were deserted for the Klondike. Returning miners brought back fortunes, which, in a few months' work, had been washed from the gravelly beds of the small rivers and creeks flowing through the mountains to join the mighty Yukon. The fields were reached by way of the Chilcoot pass northward to Lake Lindeman at the headwaters of the Yukon, and thence through a chain of lakes down the river, a distance in all of about 500 miles. The total distance from New York by this route over the Canadian Pacific R. R. to Victoria and thence to Juneau and through the Lynn Canal and overland to the diggings was about 4,900 miles, and the cost of making the trip about \$700, which included a year's provisions. Another route was by steamer from Seattle, Washington, to the mouth of the Yukon, and thence about 1,500 miles up that river. The cost of this trip was about the same, yet every steamer returning to the north was crowded with men and loaded down with supplies, and parties were organized to make the trip by land. Even the reports of returning miners regarding the rigorous climate, difficulty of access and scarcity of provisions, were unavailing to check the rush. The more careful prospectors, however, set about

preparations for organized expeditions to enter the region at the opening of navigation in the spring of 1898. In the meantime still another route was proposed, to start out from Fort Wrangell, nearly east of Sitka, up Telegraph Creek 105 miles, then across the table-land to Lake Teslin, and down the Halalenuqua and Lewis rivers to the Yukon and Dawson City. The Canadian government also undertook a thorough exploration of all the passes at the head of Lynn Canal and of the upper waters of the Yukon to ascertain the best routes to the district, and in August, 1897, sent a corps of engineers, surveyors, and experts in telegraph construction to look over the situation.

The principal distributing point for the region was Dawson City located at the junction of the Klondike and Yukon Rivers and supplies had to be taken in during the summer season as navigation of the Yukon is closed for the most of the year. The lack of water also prevented extracting the gold during about nine months in the year, but in order that profitable labor might still be carried on a new method of mining was adopted which was called "burning," a description of which, taken from a late report of the Dominion land-surveyor is here given:

A great many of the miners spend their time in the summer prospecting and in winter resort to a method lately adopted and which is called "burning." They make fires on the surface thus thawing the ground until the bed rock is reached, then drift and tunnel; the pay dirt is brought to the surface and heaped in a pile until spring, when water can be obtained. The sluice boxes are then set up and the dirt is washed out, thus enabling the miner to work advantageously and profitably the year round. This method has been found very satisfactory in places where the pay streak is at any great depth from the surface. In this way the complaint is overcome which has been so commonly advanced by miners and others that in the Yukon several months of the year are lost in idleness.

There were many who at first doubted the reliability of the reports of the value of the discoveries, but on July 22nd, 1897, verification was furnished in the shape of



CUDAHY.



INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY ACROSS THE YUKON, LOOKING NORTH.



JUNCTION OF FORTY MILE AND YUKON RIVERS.



FORTY MILE TOWN.



LAKE LINDEMAN.



MILES CAÑON.



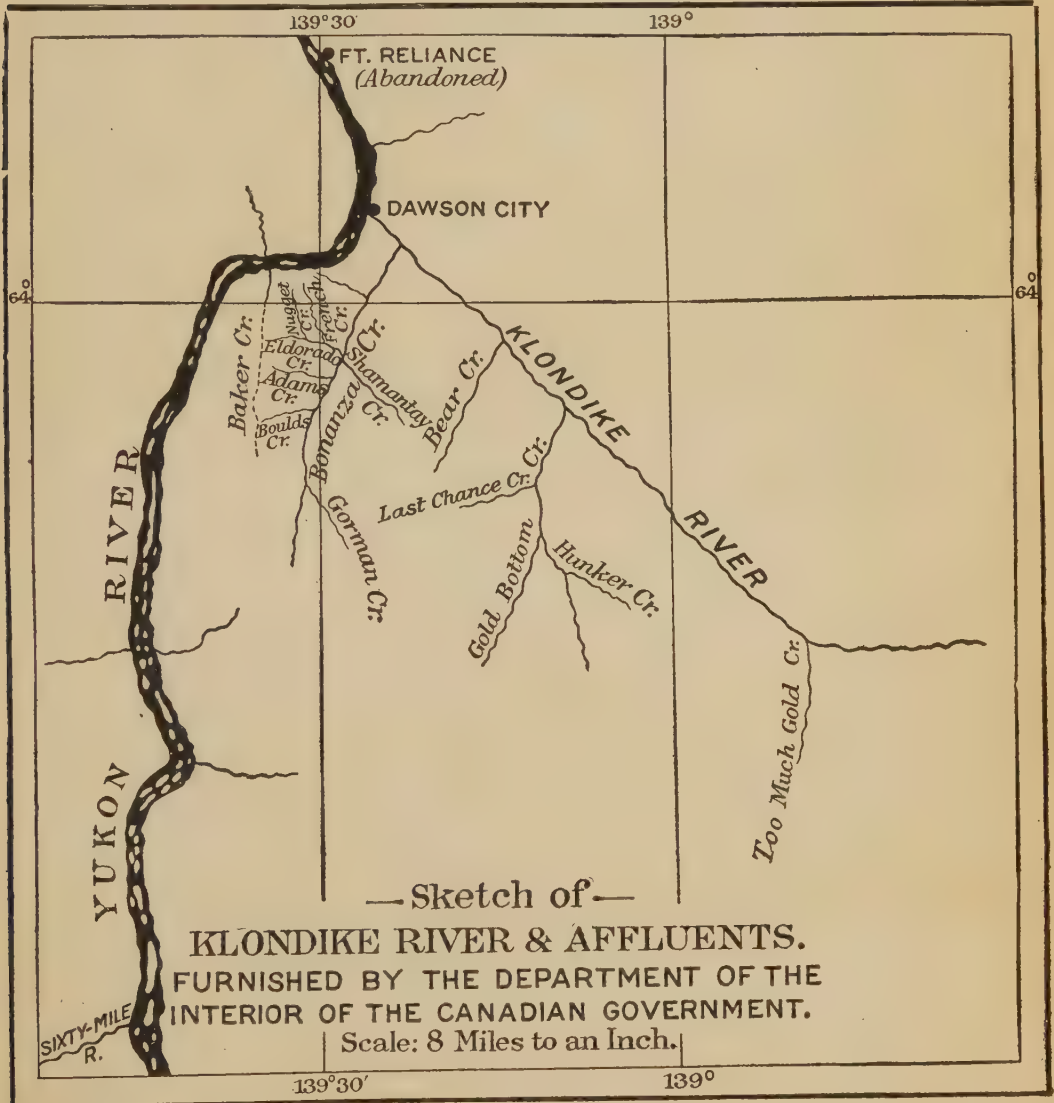
WHITE HORSE RAPIDS.



FORT CONSTANTINE AND FORTY MILE TOWN, YUKON RIVER.

a statement from the Director of the United States Mint to the effect that the San Francisco Mint had already received \$1,000,000 from the Klondike district, and over \$200,000 from the same source had been deposited at the United States Assay Office at Butte, Montana. On August 3rd a further sum of \$750,000 in refined gold from

of other streams west of the boundary and in Alaska proper. Even before the rich Klondike deposits were discovered the Canadian government had sent a small force of mounted police to the region, and two posts, one at Fort Cudahy and the other at Forty Mile Creek, were established, and the officers in command proceeded to



the Klondike region was deposited at the San Francisco Mint, thus affording additional verification of the richness of the yield.

The Klondike River and its tributaries were wholly within the British Possessions, but pay gravel was also found in the beds

administer the laws and collect revenues for the Customs Department. A little later a third post was established at the mouth of the Klondike River, and a gold Commissioner, Surveyor and General Agent for the Minister of the Interior were appointed.

In the meantime a treaty was pending

between Great Britain and the United States with reference to the exact location of the true boundary line. The latter had never been definitely fixed by survey, and many disputes arose. There was also a feeling of insecurity among Americans who had staked out claims in British territory, owing to the report that the Canadian authorities would not allow the gold to be taken out except by British subjects, or would, in any event, exact a heavy royalty. Numerous complaints and protests, even in advance of any action at Ottawa, were lodged at Washington, but the United States government could only express the hope that England would not adopt such a course since British subjects had always been allowed to hold claims and freely carry on mining operations on the Alaska side of the line.

In view of the importance of the discoveries, the United States government at once began to look into the matter with a view to providing better means of access to the gold fields and for the protection of its citizens there. A port of entry was established at Dyea, and on July 20th, 1897, President McKinley appointed Charles H. Isham of Maryland to be United States Commissioner for Alaska, located at Circle City with a number of deputies to aid in enforcing the laws of the United States. Further than this a bill was introduced which provided for the improvement of the overland route from Chilcoot Inlet northward to the gold fields, and the question was considered of bringing into the country reindeer from Siberia, their utility for both transportation and food having been tested by the Rev. Sheldon Jackson, for some years in charge of the government educational work in the territory. Based on experience with the animals in Norway it was estimated that Alaska could easily support nine million reindeer since their natural food is the long, fibrous moss with which the country abounds.

With reference to the extent of the Klon-

dike deposits, the Director of the United States Mint stated on the authority of the report of the United States Geological Survey that the mineral belt was about 100 miles long extending in a northwestern and southeasterly direction, and only a few miles in width. But it was thought that nature had sprinkled Alaska as well as Asiatic Russia with gold, the latter region despite its inclement climate and inhospitable soil sending over \$25,000,000 annually to the mint at St. Petersburg. Like conditions prevailed in Alaska, which it was thought would reduce the output there to about one-third what it would be in a favorable latitude.

RECENT EVENTS IN CANADA.

The strife between the Protestants and Catholics in the province of Manitoba, over the question of representation in educational matters, and known as the "Manitoba School Question," which began early, in 1895, assumed political importance in the shape of a contest between Catholics and Orangemen. The latter were largely in the majority, and the question was carried into the Dominion Parliament. The Catholic element made a bitter fight for the restoration of separate schools, which had been abolished by the government, even invoking, it was said, the intervention of the Pope. The question, which had become one of magnitude in the political conduct of the government, had not been solved as late as February, 1897, but was still a matter of contention and debate.

During the summer of 1895 an attempt was made to have Newfoundland become a part of the Dominion of Canada, but it failed, owing to the inability of the representatives of the two colonies to agree upon the amount of the debts of Newfoundland which should be assumed by the Canadian government. In the latter part of 1895 valuable deposits of coal were found in Newfoundland, and gold was discovered in 1896.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

The imprisonment and probable murder by Spanish officials of Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, a naturalized American citizen residing in Cuba, created such intense and continued excitement in the United States that the Secretary of State was finally, in February, 1897, induced to take action, and the American minister at Madrid was instructed to demand of the Spanish government a thorough investigation of the case. No satisfactory action being taken by Spain in response to this demand, the President, in the latter part of April, appointed W. J. Calhoun, of Illinois, special counsel to Consul-General Lee to go to Cuba to investigate the circumstances of Dr. Ruiz's imprisonment and death. Of the results of the investigation Consul-General Lee in his official report says: "He (Dr. Ruiz) died from congestion of the brain produced by a blow on the top of the head." Whether the blow was self-inflicted while he was temporarily crazed by his unlawful and inhuman imprisonment, or whether he was struck over the head with one of the clubs carried by the jailers, was not clearly established by the investigation, "and," says General Lee in his report, "will, under the existing conditions, always remain unknown." But the fact remains, his unjust confinement killed him. General Lee's report disclosed that Dr. Ruiz was innocent of any offense; that his trial by court-martial and his confinement in prison were in violation of his rights as an American citizen; that he was denied communication with his family and friends; and that, although he was a strong, robust man, he was, after being under arrest 315 hours, taken from his cell a corpse.

Meanwhile, reports of other outrages upon American citizens by the Spanish authorities in Cuba kept coming in from the American correspondents on the island until it became obvious to everyone that some radical action must soon be taken on the part of the American

government to protect the rights and preserve the lives of American citizens residing in Cuba.

By an order of General Weyler issued February 16, 1896, the people of Cuba living outside of fortified towns had been required upon eight days' notice to leave their homes and farms and concentrate themselves in the garrison towns. The immediate effect of this order was to furnish the Spanish officers in Cuba with a pretext for beginning a war of extermination of the Cuban noncombatants or "pacificos." The time given them to move was so short that thousands of them had no knowledge that any such order had been issued, and the first notice they received was the approach of the Spanish troops with firebrands to burn their dwellings and cruel machetes to hack them to death. But their fate was kindness itself compared with that of those who received the notice in time to flee from their homes and concentrate themselves in the fortified towns, there to die of lingering starvation and cruel exposure.

The awful stories of starvation and death from neglect and disease of helpless women and children imprisoned in the fortified towns, were graphically told by the correspondents of the American press in Cuba, and snap-shot pictures of their emaciated and perishing bodies were published in the newspapers throughout the United States. An irresistible tide of moral indignation spread throughout the country. So terrible and shocking were the stories of outrage, massacre, and starvation, that thousands of pious people in the United States refused to give them credence, and accused the papers that published them of resorting to "yellow journalism." But still the terrible tales were repeated and still the indignation of the people increased. Finally there came official reports from Consul-General Lee at Havana that American citizens were being subjected indiscriminately with the Cubans to death from starvation, exposure, and disease brought about by General Weyler's cruel order of concentration. This stirred the whole country to

the point of action on grounds of patriotism as well as of humanity.

On May 17, 1897, President McKinley sent the following message to Congress:—

"To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States: Official information from our consuls in Cuba establishes the fact that a large number of American citizens in the island are in a state of destitution, suffering for want of food and medicines. This applies particularly to the rural districts of the central and eastern parts.

"The agricultural classes have been forced from their farms into the nearest towns, where they are without work or money. The local authorities of the several towns, however kindly disposed, are unable to relieve the needs of their own people and are altogether powerless to help our citizens.

"The latest report of Consul-General Lee estimates 600 to 800 Americans are without means of support. I have assured him that provision would be made at once to relieve them. To that end I recommend that Congress make an appropriation of not less than \$50,000, to be immediately available for use under the direction of the Secretary of State.

"It is desirable that a part of the sum which may be appropriated by Congress should, in the discretion of the Secretary of State, also be used for the transportation of American citizens who, desiring to return to the United States, are without means to do so."

A bill making the appropriation recommended by the President passed the Senate and the House, and was signed by the President, May 24.

The duty of distributing food, medicine, and raiment among the destitute Americans in Cuba was entrusted to Consul-General Lee and the American consuls in Cuba, and was faithfully and economically performed. The duty brought the consuls in contact with the suffering *reconcentrados* and placed them in a position to obtain and furnish to the United States government the facts concerning the terrible stories told by the correspondents of the outrages and sufferings inflicted upon them through the execution of Weyler's order of concentration.

Meanwhile Spain was exerting every possible effort to raise the necessary funds for carrying on the war, and the primary cause of the rebellion in the Philippines was excessive taxation by Spain to raise money

for that purpose. The Philippines were already overburdened with assessments to enrich Spanish coffers and to support the native poor. The additional money required for Cuba was the last straw. Troops were used to compel the payment of taxes, and all who resisted were either thrown into prison or massacred. Extreme cruelties began on the islands when General Aguirre arrived from Spain with reinforcements. He did not undertake to follow the insurgents into the mountains, but massacred the native population in the towns. When he took Santa Clara del Laguna he spared neither man, woman nor child. Every unfortunate captive was butchered. But in spite of the desperate and inhuman efforts of the Spaniards to suppress it, the insurrection continued to grow until January 2, 1897, when the insurgent army was defeated in a great battle at Bulacan, where they lost 1,000 killed, including their leader, General Ensebro. For a time after this the insurrection abated under promises of the Spanish government to institute a scheme of reforms in the islands. But the promises not being kept the insurrection broke out afresh and grew in importance more rapidly than before, and at the time war broke out between the United States and Spain an army of 50,000 insurgents was threatening Manila.

On August 8, 1897, the Spanish minister, Señor Canovas, was assassinated by an Italian anarchist. General Azcarraga was appointed President of the Council, and the Cabinet for the time being remained unchanged. In the meantime protests from the United States regarding the inhuman conduct of the war in Cuba reached Spain. A note was presented to the Spanish government by the American minister at Madrid, courteously but firmly warning Spain that the neutrality of the United States could not permanently be maintained in face of the situation in Cuba and the damage to American interests arising therefrom.

The Azcarraga government paid no heed to the note, but upon Señor Sagasta assuming office, October 4, 1897, the situa-

82	81	80	79	78
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4 Co NY.

565 feet above

Longitude



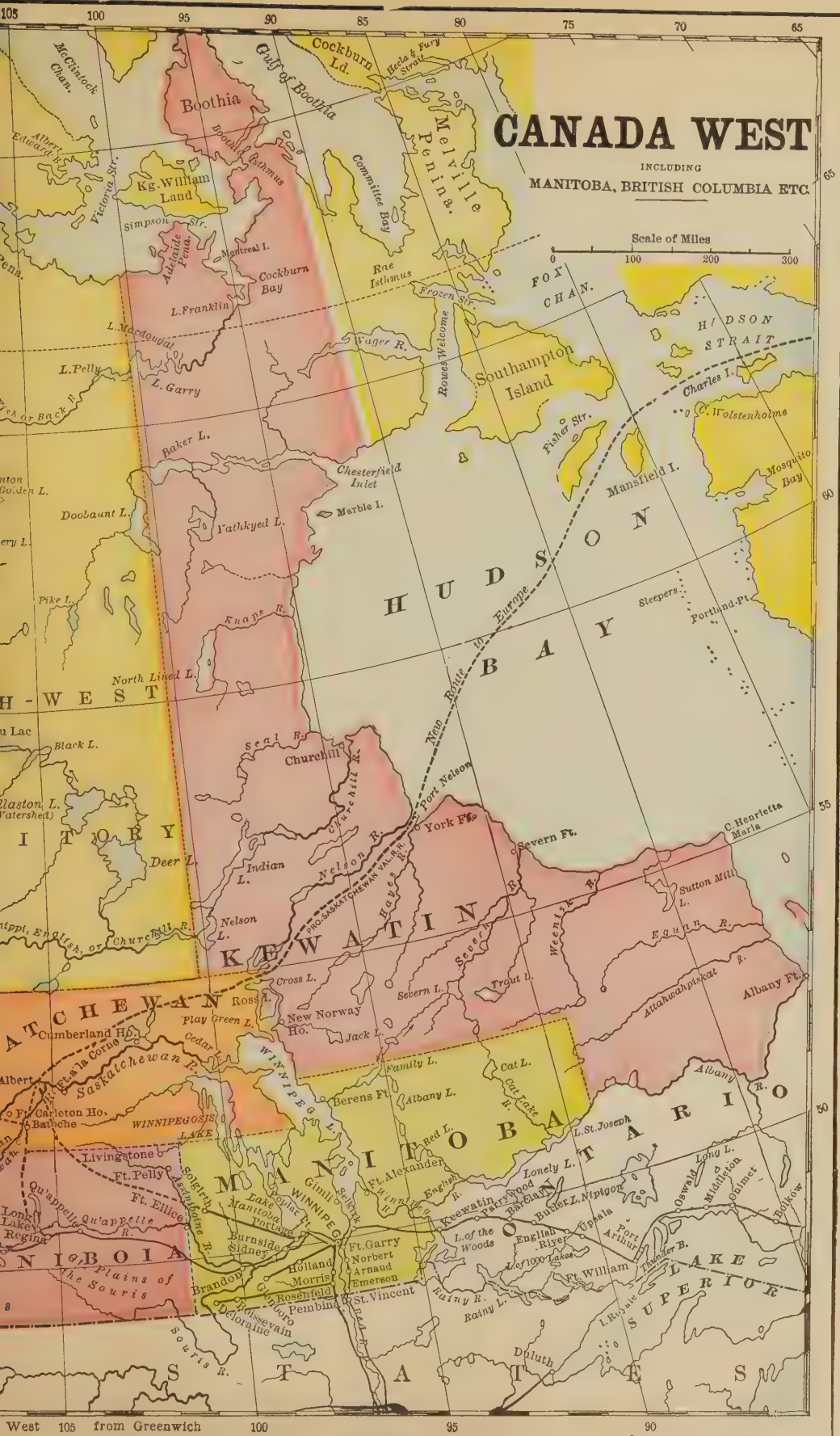
Capital thus **TORONTO** *
County Towns
Railways ————

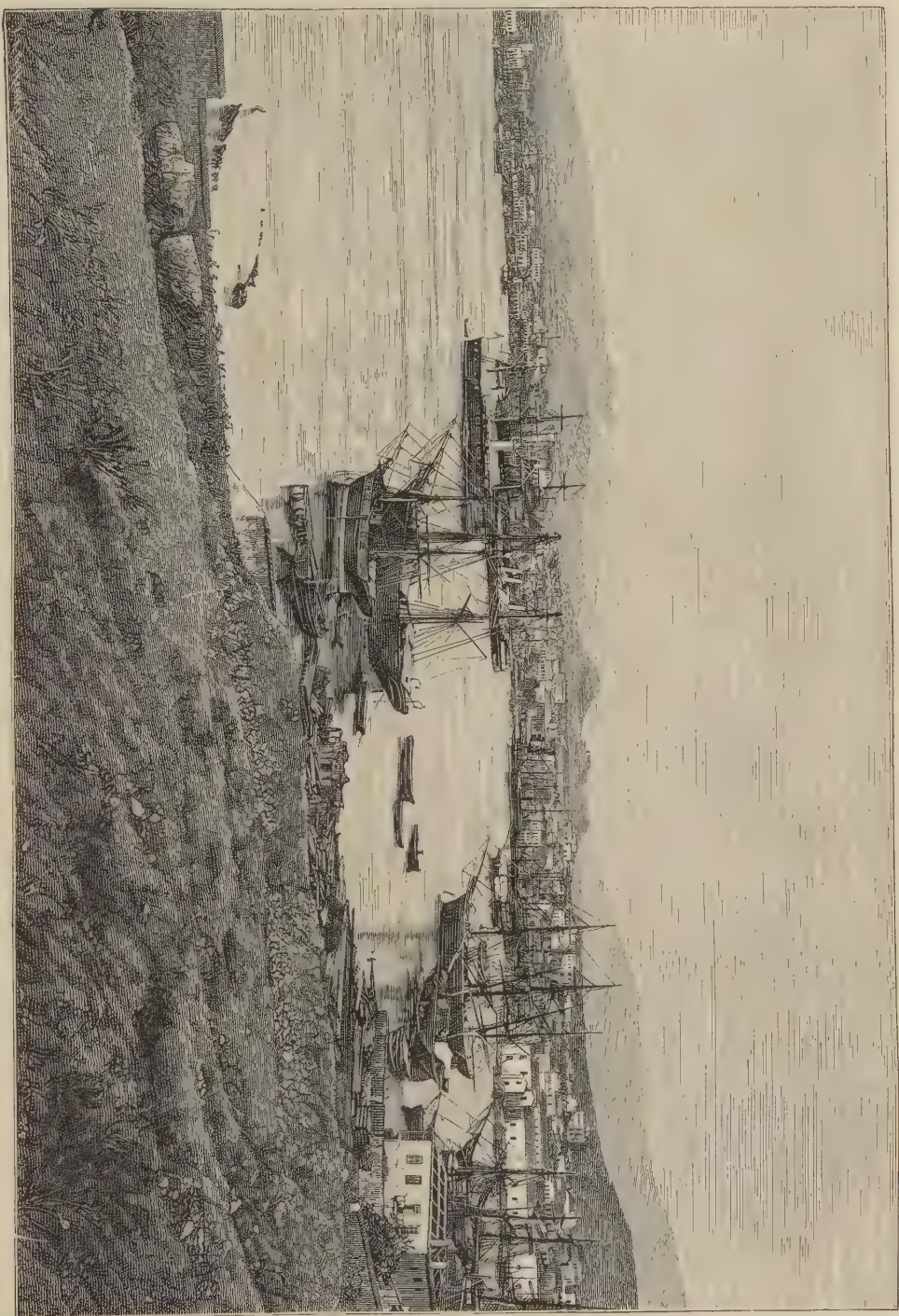
WESTERN PART
OF
ONTARIO

Scale of Miles

0 50 100 150 200







THE PIRAEUS AT ATHENS.



THE UNITED STATES SECOND-CLASS BATTLESHIP "MAINE."

tion in Cuba was at once considered, and on October 7, it was announced that autonomy under the suzerainty of Spain would be granted. As an evidence of good faith of



CAPTAIN-GENERAL BLANCO.

the government in making this announcement, General Weyler was recalled and Marshal Blanco appointed Governor-General of Cuba in his stead.

But the administration of Blanco proved to be but little, if any, better than Weyler's. The promised scheme of autonomy turned out to be but a sham, and that it never was meant seriously, but only as a device to gain delay, was proven by an intercepted letter of the Spanish minister, De Lome, in which the fact was virtually admitted. Information still continued to come from the correspondents in Cuba that the *reconcentrados* were perishing by thousands.

The administration at Washington, however, was disposed to believe in the good faith of the Spaniards regarding the matter of their promises of reforms and home rule in Cuba, and the President still held to the policy announced in his message to Congress, December 6, 1897, that Spain "should be given a reasonable chance to realize her expectations and to prove the asserted

efficacy of the new order of things to which she stands irrevocably committed."

But reports from our consuls in Cuba began to pour in confirming all that the newspapers had said regarding the distress and starvation of the *reconcentrados*. The President was so impressed with horrible truths revealed by the consul's reports that he took immediate precautions towards being prepared for the war which he knew must come when the reports were submitted to Congress and the country. Early in January, 1898, he sent some of our most formidable warships to Cuban waters to be ready for the emergency, and when about prepared to send the consular reports to the Senate news was received that the United States battleship "Maine," while peacefully anchored in the harbor of Havana, on the night of February 15, 1898, had been destroyed by an explosion, causing the death of 266 American officers and seamen. This terrible disaster was regarded throughout the country as the treacherous work of the Spanish officials in



CAPT. CHARLES D. SIGSBEE, OF THE "MAINE."

Cuba, and the first act of war on the part of Spain against the United States. On March 8, the House of Representatives unanimously voted to place \$50,000,000

at the discretionary disposal of the President as an emergency fund for the national defense, and on the following day similar action was taken by the Senate. The act was immediately approved by the President, and measures of preparation for war were vigorously pushed. On March 25 Commodore Schley took formal command of the flying squadron in Hampton Roads. All warships of the American navy were ordered to be painted dark preparatory to war. New battleships were purchased by the agents of the United States abroad. Great activity was manifest in the Navy and War Departments at Washington. The railroads were kept busy moving the regular army and its equipments to points from which embarkation for Cuba would be easy. Chickamauga Park, near Chattanooga, Tenn., was made a general rendezvous for troops, from which points soldiers and supplies were to be dispatched to seacoast towns within easy striking distance from Cuba. Port Tampa, Fla., was fixed upon as the main point for the concentration of troops for immediate embarkation for Cuba. By the beginning of May fully 20,000 of the 25,000 troops which compose the standing army of the United States were in camp at these two rendezvous, and of the remaining 5,000 a few were in camp at Mobile, New Orleans, and Key West, while the rest were doing guard duty at posts from which it was considered unwise to withdraw the entire force. Twenty-eight batteries of artillery, almost the entire complement of this branch of the United States army, were in camp at Port Tampa, awaiting orders to make a descent upon the Spanish forces in Cuba. Admiral Sampson had taken charge of the squadron at Key West, Commodore Schley was in command of the flying squadron at Hampton Roads, and Admiral Howell in command of a new squadron formed for purposes of patrol of our Atlantic coast.

In the meantime European interests were making for peace, and on April 17 the six ambassadors and ministers representing the Great Powers, which form the so-called

concert of Europe, appeared before President McKinley in a body to present a joint note expressing the hope on the part of their governments that peace might be maintained between the United States and Spain. The President immediately submitted his reply, the following sentence from which sufficiently indicates its purport: "The government of the United States appreciates the humanitarian and disinterested character of the communication now made on behalf of the Powers named, and, for its part, is confident that equal appreciation will be shown for its own earnest and unselfish endeavors to fulfill a duty to hu-



WILLIAM T. SAMPSON, U. S. N.

manity by ending a situation the indefinite prolongation of which has become insufferable."

The excitement caused by the disaster to the *Maine* had induced the President to delay sending in the consular reports lest Congress, under the double excitement, be incited to declare war on Spain at once and thereby endanger the lives of all the American consuls in Cuba.

Impatiently the people waited for more than forty days for the Naval Board of Inquiry to make its report as to the cause of

under Admiral Sampson, had matured a plan for sinking the collier *Merrimac* directly across the narrow channel leading into Santiago harbor, and this plan was most gallantly carried out under cover of darkness in the earliest hours of June 3. Hobson with a crew of seven men took the collier in as intended, with torpedoes on her sides to be fired for sinking her; three of these torpedoes exploded upon the touch of a button by the daring commander, and at the same time a submarine Spanish mine caught the intruder full amidships and tore a great rent in her side. The Spanish gunners and troops on both shores had early got into action, as against a battleship forcing an entrance, and under a storm of shot and shell the heroes of the *Merrimac*, as she reached her destination and her doom, only saved themselves by lying face down glued to the deck. Even the *Vizcaya* from the harbor inside took a hand with the batteries from the fortifications, and her six-inch shells tore clear through the old wooden ship, while plunging shots from above crashed down through her decks. Troops from Santiago lined the shores, and whistling bullets, by which the opposite lines did execution upon each other, would have made quick work with any heads that had showed themselves. By one of the singular chances of the war, the Spanish guns spent their fury on the forward parts of the ship, while Hobson and his companions kept as flat on the deck aft as they could, waiting for shell and shot to come their way. It was through splendid discipline that not a man moved while the Spanish fire was raking the slowly sinking ship; not a head was lifted until the water came over the submerged decks, carrying the catamaran up amid the wreckage while the men held on to its edges, with only their heads above the water. With daylight, and the Spanish fire apparently victorious over the sunken invader, the battle of the *Merrimac*, if it may be called so from a Spanish point of view, was over, and a Spanish launch brought Commodore Cervera out to the scene. His marines had raised their rifles

to fire on the heads showing at the surface of the channel, when Hobson shouted a surrender, and Cervera, leaning out to view from under his awning, stayed the guns of his marksmen, and accepted the surrender of the smallest force that ever won a great victory in the very midst of a crushing disaster and came unscathed out of overwhelming defeat. Then followed one of those incidents of humanity which write men's names ineffaceable for honor in the annals of mankind. The superb daring of Hobson and his companions, undertaking to blow up their ship at the most desperate risk of their lives, and surviving by a courage and discipline never surpassed, touched the heart of the Spanish Admiral, and moved him to at once send his chief of staff under a flag of truce to Admiral Sampson with a note extolling the bravery of his prisoners and announcing that they had escaped unhurt. Not the least interesting sequel to this military incident was the result to Admiral Cervera when, with desperate bravery, he had fought the battle in which his squadron was overwhelmed with sudden and terrible destruction. As nominally a prisoner of war, he was treated almost as an honored guest everywhere that he went in the United States, and his name will be remembered in American history for singular and stainless honor.

To meet the urgent necessity of large army coöperation with the victorious fleet under Dewey on the other side of the globe, the armored cruiser *Charleston* was dispatched from San Francisco for Manila, via Honolulu, on the 22d of May, and three days later, while the President called for 75,000 more volunteers, the transports *Australia*, *City of Peking*, and *City of Sydney*, sailed from San Francisco for Manila, with 2,500 troops under General Anderson. With the convoy from Honolulu of the *Charleston* this expedition reached its destination at Cavité June 30, and disembarked the troops on the following day. On the way formal possession was taken of the Ladrone Islands, and an officer and garrison were left at Guahan, while the Spanish Governor

and his force were taken along as prisoners of war. The second expedition, under General F. V. Greene, sailed June 15 on four transports and arrived on July 20. The third left San Francisco June 27. It consisted of 4,000 men, under command of General McArthur, carried by the transports *Ohio*, *Indiana*, *City of Para*, *Morgan City*, and *Valencia*. The last named, however, was delayed, and sailed on the 29th with the *Newport*, which carried General Wesley Merritt and Batteries H and K of the Third United States Artillery and the Astor Independent Battery. The troops taken by the five regular transports were the First Idaho, First Nebraska, First Wyoming, First North Dakota, Thirteenth Minnesota, one battalion of the Eighteenth and one of the Twenty-third United States Infantry, Batteries G and I of the Third Artillery, the Signal Corps, and a detachment of engineers. The expedition was at Honolulu, July 8, and proceeded on its way on the following day. The fourth expedition, under General Otis, started July 15 on the *City of Pueblo*, followed within a few days by the *Pennsylvania* and *City of Rio Janeiro*. A fifth expedition was already in preparation, to include the First New York Volunteers.

The presence of several German war ships gave rise to disquieting reports of possible interference. An incident to which some significance was attached was reported as happening on July 6. General Aguinaldo, the insurgent chief, had sent an armed steamer to Subig Bay to take possession of La Isle Grande, which was held by a Spanish garrison, and the German cruiser *Irene* intervened to prevent. Thereupon Admiral Dewey sent the *Raleigh* and the *Concord* to Subig Bay to take possession of the island. The *Irene* slipped away when they appeared, and the island was speedily taken and turned over to the insurgents. The 400 or 500 Spaniards who surrendered were driven off the island to the mainland. The insurgents had full possession of the country about Manila, and the American troops occupied Cavité.

June 17 Spain started a squadron under Admiral Camara, from Cadiz, east through the Mediterranean, and on the 26th it was at Port Said, Egypt, apparently bound for the Philippines against Dewey. On the next day preparations were announced at Washington for a movement by a strong fleet under Commodore Watson, directly against the ports and coast of Spain. Camara's fleet paid the heavy expense of passing through the Suez Canal July 5, but only to return within a short time and proceed back to Spain.

The naval bombardment of the Santiago forts, which was begun by Commodore Schley May 31, and continued June 6, was reported by Admiral Sampson as having been successful June 7 in silencing the Spanish fire. It had rested with Admiral Schley's small squadron to prevent the escape of Cervera's fleet, until Rear-Admiral Sampson arrived June 1 and made the barrier an impregnable one. The bombardment of the fortifications by Schley and Sampson sank the *Reina Mercedes*, and dismounted some of the Spanish guns, but hardly did more damage to the Spanish works than a few days would suffice to repair. The Morro fort was spared by express order of Admiral Sampson because of his belief that Hobson and his companions of the *Merrimac* were confined there. It was impossible to press the operations of the fleet, powerful as it was, to the extent of endeavoring to pass the forts and attack Cervera's squadron in Santiago harbor. The entrance to the harbor, passing the forts, is by a channel only 280 feet wide, and with a double twist that calls for a large area for the swinging about of a great ship. To the east of this narrow entrance is Morro Castle, at an elevation of 180 feet, and on the west side of it is Socapa Castle, 200 feet above the water. East of Morro is a large earthwork mounted with modern guns. Below Morro batteries had been planted, one at an elevation of 100 feet, and one 25 feet lower. A little below Socapa Castle also was an earthworks battery of modern guns. From all these

defensive works there would be a most dangerous plunging fire, giving the best possible chance to gunners with any skill at all of easily destroying ships seeking to force an entrance.

Shortly after Hobson's venture and the naval bombardment, Admiral Sampson communicated with General Garcia of the Cuban insurgents, and by ample supplies of arms, ammunition, provisions, and other necessities, did what he could to make the native allies of our troops effective soldiers. It was not, however, found then, nor did it appear afterwards, that the Cubans in arms against Spain could be depended upon for anything like effective military operations.

The first landing in Cuba was effected under the direction of Admiral Sampson. Selecting Guantanamo, a point forty miles to the east of Santiago de Cuba, and the only coast point where a landlocked bay of sufficient depth for large ships could be found, he sent the *Marblehead*, *Suwanee*, and *Yankee* to clear the way for the landing of 600 marines who had been brought down on the *Panther*. The conflict was sharp and short, and the marines, after burning the village at the entrance to the bay, entered and took possession. This was on the 10th of June.

On the second day, June 11, there was a sharp skirmish, in which a number of men were killed, but for which killing the marines retaliated with the destruction of ten Spaniards for every American, and took seventeen prisoners. A permanent camp was established, and the American fleet, with an assurance so remarkable as almost to border on bravado, began actively to use the bay as a permanent base of naval operations. The bay itself was found to be lined with mines, but all of them, twelve in number, were removed without explosion, although two were in contact with the bottoms of the *Marblehead* and the *Texas*. The success of this move meant a good deal to the fleet, allowing it not only to coal and provision from the supply boats in a smooth bay, but providing a harbor for the small vessels in case of heavy seas or tropical windstorms dangerous to their welfare.

There was a further Spanish attack at Guantanamo June 14, with two Americans and seventeen Spaniards killed, and on the 16th the fort was reduced by the *Texas*, *Suwanee*, and *Marblehead*. A final shelling of Spaniards in the vicinity was effected the next day. In the meanwhile General Shafter had sailed from Key West June 14 with an army of over 15,000 under a convoy of war ships, and June 20 the fleet had arrived off Santiago, and Shafter and Sampson had proceeded to Acerraderos, fifteen miles from Santiago, for a conference with General Garcia. The landing of the army was begun June 22 at Baiquiri, with facilities far from adequate, and by laborious and tedious methods, although the utmost energy was shown. As the troops advanced inland three miles along the Baiquiri River they were met by Cubans who had come in from the east of Baiquiri. The advance pushed on the next day to Siboney, a coast village about nine miles from Baiquiri, and in the afternoon the landing of troops, and of horses and mules, was begun at Siboney, with a somewhat more favorable beach than at Baiquiri.

On the 24th the landing of troops continued; the advance early in the morning reached La Quasina, about four miles west of Siboney, where a skirmish had occurred the day before between Cubans and Spaniards, in which one Cuban was killed and eight wounded. Here our advance met a portion of the enemy, posted behind stone walls on a very high and steep hill, and facing a point in the road which it was necessary for our troops to pass on marching from a sunken road into an open space. Here occurred what has since been called the action of La Quasina. The First and Tenth regiments of regular cavalry (dismounted) deployed and charged up the hill in front; the First Volunteer Cavalry deployed upon the other, or ridge, road from Siboney, which forks at this point with the valley road, and charged in flank on the left, driving the enemy from its position, but not until we had sustained severe losses in both killed and wounded. Our forces pushed on, and at

nightfall occupied a line a mile or more in advance of the position occupied by the enemy in the morning. The conduct of the troops, both white and colored, regular and volunteer, was most gallant and soldierly, and General Young's dispositions, plan, and execution were skillful, dashing, and successful.

It was unwarrantably represented in the report of this splendid initial fight that the Rough Riders were caught in an ambush and needlessly sacrificed, although only six were killed. There was no reason whatever for this report. The notable thing in this action was that it was fought by dismounted cavalry, the conditions compelling this. The entire loss was sixteen killed and forty more wounded, but this was the cost of carrying a fortified position by a splendid dash, which struck the keynote of the American advance against Santiago. That men just landed from the cool ocean vessels into the terrible Cuban heat, and, almost without breakfast, marched eight miles in the blazing sun, and through nearly pathless thickets of briery undergrowth, could summon their courage to carry a fortified position with irresistible dash, signified a spirit ominous of Spanish defeat. La Quasina was the prelude to El Caney and San Juan on the 1st of July, and to the surrender of Santiago on the 14th.

During the extremely slow landing of 17,000 troops, with horses, batteries, and supplies, the Spanish forces seemed to display no activity or enterprise.

Commodore Schley, commenting on the landing, said: "It is breaking all records in modern history to land such a number of men, fully provided with all the necessities, and in a hostile country. I cannot fathom the lack of Spanish opposition." And of the fighting which followed, to the surrender of Santiago, General Joseph Wheeler, a veteran Confederate of distinction, said: "Not once did the American troops have the opportunity of meeting the Spaniards in an open, fair struggle. When our men charged at and captured a breastwork, they found that the Spaniards in-

variably retreated from their position and fell back nearer Santiago. Consequently, our boys never had the chance to test the courage of the Spaniards in an open, stand-up fight. While the fighting about Santiago was sharp, the engagement equaled but few battles of the Civil War, and the enemy did not display the fierceness that we thought to encounter."

The successes of the American troops were the more remarkable because won in fighting against an intrenched enemy, and on ground as difficult as tropical vegetation could make it. The height of Spanish success was that of sharpshooting with smokeless powder, from secure cover.

The whole body of General Shafter's army, including reënforcements, which arrived on the 27th, had been landed by the 28th of June, and on the 29th Shafter and his staff came ashore and moved out to the front. The advance of the army had occupied the high ridge of Savilla, won by the La Quasina action, and was thus in full view of Santiago about five or six miles distant. Lawton's (Second) division was in advance, Wheeler's dismounted cavalry some distance behind Lawton, and Kent's (First) division came up in the rear of Wheeler. On the 27th the advance had continued, the outposts having reached points within three or four miles of the city of Santiago. The light batteries as they came up passed through Kent's division into camp near Wheeler's division, about the center of the entire army as it then stood. The mounted squadron of the Second Cavalry occupied a position near the light batteries.

On the 30th of June, after a thorough reconnoissance of the vicinity of the village of El Caney, lying three miles northeast of Santiago, orders were given for an attack to be made July 1, with a view to a flank movement through El Caney village against the left flank of the enemy. In order that troops should be in position to begin this movement early next morning they were moved out of their camps late in the afternoon and marched during the early part of the night, bivouacking near the roads, ready

to take up their positions in the battle-line at earliest dawn. It may be worthy of remark that the moon favored them during all the latter part of June and early part of July, enabling them to use many hours of the night for movements that would not have been possible in darkness.

At early dawn of July 1 the troops of Lawton's division started into the position previously designated for them to occupy. The one battery of artillery assigned to duty with this division for the day, occupied a position overlooking the village of El Caney, two thousand four hundred yards distant. General Chaffee's brigade took up a position east of the village, ready to carry the town as soon as it should have been bombarded by the artillery. General Ludlow's brigade took up a position to the west of the village in order to cut off the retreat of the Spaniards when they should be driven out and attempt to retreat to the city of Santiago. But with soldierly instinct and admirable effect he closed in upon the defenders of the village, and his white sailor hat became a target for the enemy during the hours he hugged the block-houses on his flank of the well-defended village.

The artillery opened fire about 7 A. M., and continued until eleven, while a continuous musketry fire was kept up in all parts of the lines, and the lines pressed steadily in towards the enemy's works. Between one and two artillery fire was concentrated upon a brick fort or blockhouse, at the highest and northern point of the village, and after effective battering had knocked great holes in the walls of the structure, and rendered it untenable, the infantry of the brigades of Chaffee, Bates, and Miles made an assault upon the work and carried it. A strong fire upon several other small blockhouses on the other side of the village cleared these without the aid of the artillery. The village was not then occupied because of orders for the successful troops to move to the left near the main road leading into Santiago, where they could coöperate with the division lying in that direction.

While the El Caney battle was thus fought, the troops of Wheeler's division, at the ruined plantation of El Poso, about three miles from Santiago, and Kent's division back of El Poso, with Grimes's battery, had got at work for the hard-fought battle of San Juan on the same day. The battery had opened against San Juan a little before 8 A. M., and soon after nine Wheeler's division was moving towards Santiago, General Sumner commanding on account of General Wheeler's illness, and Kent's division followed. It was necessary to cross Aguadores stream under a severe enfilading fire, but the troops had reached their respective positions about one, with very little firing, and now the whole force advanced, carried the enemy's first line of intrenchments by a vigorous charge, and on the crest thus occupied intrenched themselves against the Spanish second line, distant 500 to 1,000 yards. It was a desperate and bloody battle; a rush through dense tropical thickets, wading waist deep through the stream crossed, and encountering not only the difficulties of the jungle but those of extensive barbed-wire obstructions across the line of advance. The Spanish infantry fire, steadily increasing in intensity, came from all directions, not only from the front and the dense thickets on the flanks, but from sharpshooters thickly posted in the trees in the rear. In the brief space of ten minutes at the crossing of the ford the third brigade of Kent's division lost its commander, killed, and its two officers next in rank by severe wounds. It was this brigade with that of Hawkins which, after the desperate passage of the stream, the rush through the jungle, and the dash across the wide bottom lands set with barbed-wire obstructions, scaled the difficult San Juan hill under a most destructive fire, and helped to capture the enemy's strongest position. In this splendid and bloody charge the Rough Riders under Colonel Roosevelt and other cavalry regiments were conspicuous in the front of the assault, and in the capture of the enemy's stronghold.

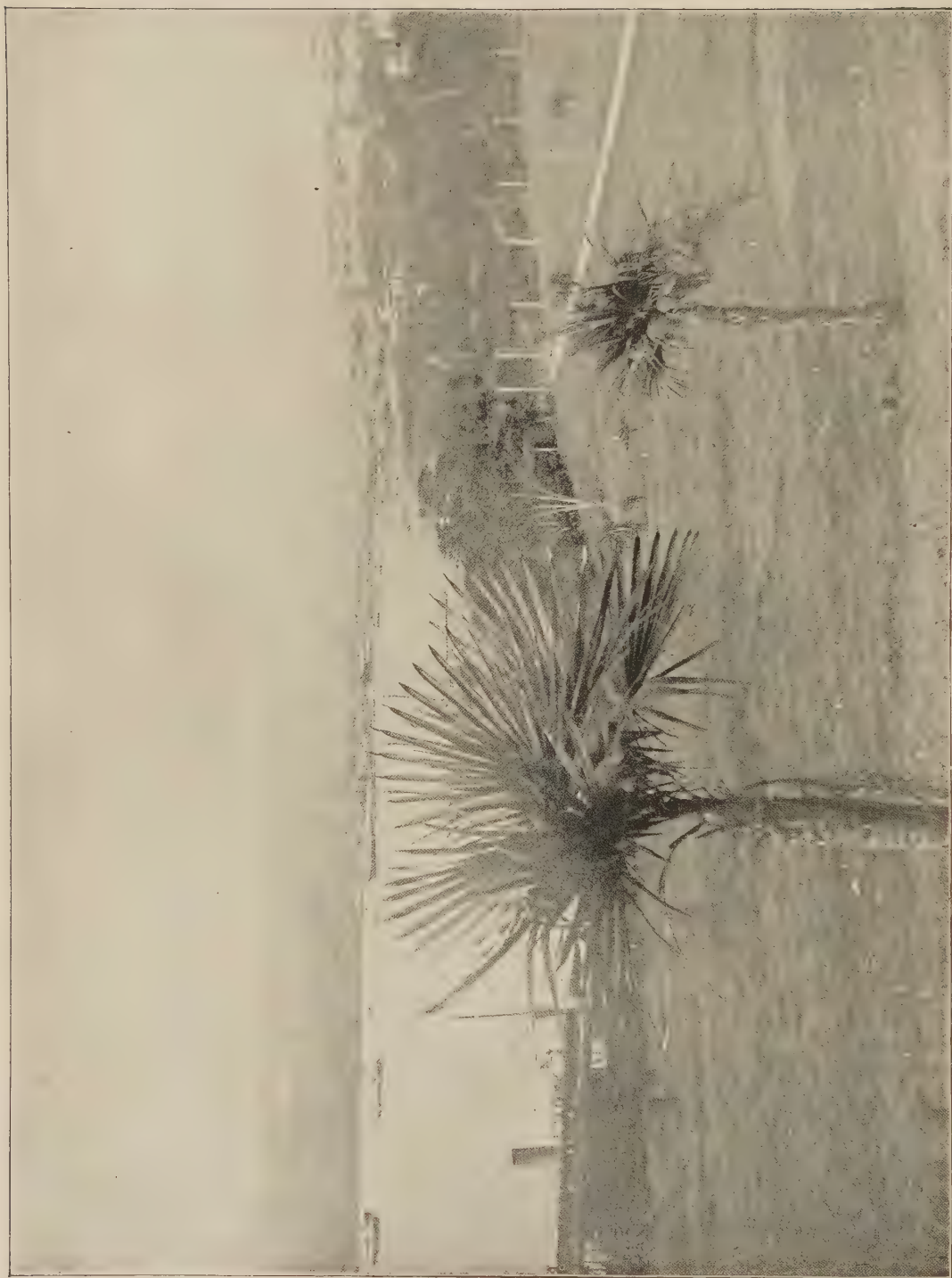
El Caney and San Juan were both in the hands of the victorious Americans before five o'clock of July 1. It had been not merely a day of hard fighting, but one of excessive suffering from the extreme heat and lack of water. The Spanish commander at El Caney, General Val Del Rey, was shot through both legs just as his men were firing their last round of ammunition, and as he gave the order to retreat. A moment later he was shot through the head and killed. He had 12 officers shot and 230 men killed and wounded. Barely one-fifth of the Spanish force at El Caney escaped to tell in Santiago of troops invincible against a murderous fire. The American troops at night on July 1 bivouacked on the ground they had taken so gallantly. The killed and wounded of the day were not less than 1,700. At night no fires were lighted. With the moonlight streaming softly down upon the scene of the day's carnage, the men, most of whom had not touched food during the day, ate hardtack and raw bacon from their knapsacks and then, without blankets or shelter, threw themselves upon the bare ground and slept. General Shafter, lying in his tent, which was lighted by a tallow dip, remained up until after midnight conferring with his division and brigade commanders, discussing the situation and plan of action for the day that was to follow. During the night fresh ammunition and food were brought up and distributed, but none of the dead were carried off the field, and the remains of many lying in the dense undergrowth along the line of the advance were perhaps never found.

On the second of July, the Spaniards came out from their trenches and made a desperate dash at the American lines, but with hardly any effect except their own frightful losses under a terrific fire which sent them back into their ditches. The effective and final army work, as the event proved, had been done. Santiago was in the power of the Americans to bring to terms in whatever way they pleased. July 3 was Sunday, and in the morning of that day occurred the grand climax of this swift

and surprising war. Admiral Cervera led forth his ships from Santiago harbor to take his chance of total destruction, but in hope that his fastest and finest might escape. Admiral Sampson had gone to the east some miles away when Cervera sent his two torpedo boats in the same direction to draw the American attack there, while with his four big battleships he bore west at full speed hoping to reach the open sea, or that one or two, at least, might get away. Not the least remarkable incident of the day was the readiness, swiftness, and terrible effectiveness of the *Gloucester*, under commander Wainwright, in destroying the two torpedo boats, while Commodore Schley handled the weight of his fleet against the weight of Cervera's. It was a terribly unequal battle, short, sharp, and overwhelmingly decisive, almost beyond belief. Not a shot of the Spanish guns told, not one of the American failed to tell with murderous, rending, and fire-kindling effect. The *Maria Theresa*, the *Oquendo*, and the *Vizcaya* were speedily rendered battered, beached, and burning wrecks. But for being driven ashore they would have been sunk. The *Cristobal Colon* got away to the west, but not at a speed to escape the *Oregon* and the *Brooklyn*, under whose crushing fire she went on the beach and hauled down her colors. It was the final moment of Spanish power in the New World. The intelligence received everywhere on the morning of July 4 made that day one such as America had never known. It was but a natural sequel to this final naval victory when General Toral, July 14, surrendered Santiago to the victors of El Caney and San Juan under General Shafter. The inevitable sequel to the advance of the army within bombarding distance of the city was vainly sought to be put off by the Spanish commander, General Toral, but on the 14th terms of surrender were agreed upon, the United States undertaking to send the Spanish troops home to Spain. The surrender included all of the east end of Cuba. On July 17 the American flag was raised over Santiago, after the Spanish



GETTING POSITION FOR A BROADSIDE.



SANTIAGO DE CUBA.

troops had marched out and laid down their arms.

A short and decisive naval battle was fought July 21, at Nipe, on the northeast coast of the province of Santiago, and west of the part of the province surrendered to General Shafter. Within an hour the four attacking vessels, the *Topeka*, *Annapolis*, *Wasp*, and *Leyden*, sunk a Spanish gunboat, scattered a body of Spanish troops, silenced three forts, and raised the American flag over the City Hall of Nipe, the fine harbor of which would have made a base of operations upon Porto Rico, if military operations had been continued.

General Miles had arrived in Cuba July 11, and ten days later sailed with an army on transports, and a naval convoy, for Porto Rico. On the 25th his first landing was made at Ponce, and the expedition went steadily forward until all army operations of aggressive character were stopped, August 13, by intelligence that peace had been agreed upon between Spain and the United States. The French Ambassador at Washington, M. Cambon, had presented credentials fully empowering him to act immediately and decisively looking to peace on terms acceptable to the United States. These terms had been made known to him July 30. They included the immediate evacuation of every Spanish dependency in the Western Hemisphere, the relinquishment of all Spanish claims to sovereignty in Cuba; the cession of Porto Rico and other islands, except Cuba, to the United States; the holding by the United States, of Manila city and bay pending settlement by commissioners of the future disposition and government of the Philippines.

On August 12, at 4:23 P. M., a protocol providing for peace between the United States and Spain was signed by Secretary Day for the United States, and Ambassador Cambon for Spain.

At Manila, with the arrival of MacArthur's troops, July 31, General Merritt had an army of 460 officers and 10,464 men encamped between Manila and Cavité. On the night of July 31 the Spanish forces to the num-

ber of 3,000 made a sharp attack, several times charging the American lines. They were repulsed with heavy losses, while the Americans lost only 11 killed and 37 wounded.

On Saturday, August 13, before intelligence of the protocol had reached them, Admiral Dewey and General Merritt secured the surrender of Manila about 5 P. M., with 7,000 Spanish prisoners. The naval attack on the forts and intrenchments at Malate, on the south of Manila, drove off the enemy, while the army advanced from that side at the same time and stormed the trenches with such resistless energy as to convince the Spanish commander that further fighting was useless. The white flag was hoisted at 1:30 P. M., and the surrender completed about 5 P. M. Intelligence that the work begun by Dewey on the 1st of May had been completed, and the United States held full possession of Manila, was received in Washington August 17.

The war thus fought to a finish hardly paralleled in history had lasted 114 days, and had cost about \$150,000,000, of which \$98,000,000 had already been paid. Of this last total \$65,300,000 was on account of the army, and \$32,700,000 on account of the navy.

To meet this expense, and to continue operations to the close of 1898, Congress had appropriated \$360,000,000. In support of the war, and of all that it might mean in the direction of American expansion, there had gone steadily on such an uprising as the world has hardly ever seen. On the very day that intelligence reached Washington of the fall of Manila, Inspector-General Breckenridge reviewed, at the preparation camp at Chickamauga, 44,587 men enlisted and drilled for service, and eager to be sent to the front, while at other points other troops in large numbers were on the way, ready to carry the drum-beat of America anywhere round the world that the exigencies of the war might require.

It was a notable fact of the times that the drum-beat of England, which Daniel Webster long since noted as following the sun

through the circle of the globe, gave more than a muffled sympathy with the march of American events. Hardly had Europe been made conscious of the significance of Dewey's guns on the other side of the globe, when Mr. Chamberlain boldly pronounced, as Tennyson had done in his magnificent "Hands All Round," for a not-far-off union of flags and of broadsides, as the grand climax of Anglo-Saxon development.

On the 7th of July the President signed resolutions for the annexation of Hawaii, and on the morning of August 12 the formal recognition of transfer to the United States was made.

In the midst of the great events likely to be noted on the pages of history as opening a new age of broad humanity in world affairs, there passed away the last and in some respects the greatest of the men of the ages of blood and iron. Bismarck died about 11 o'clock of the night of July 30, 1898.

NO MORE WAR.

For many years the whole civilized world has been disturbed by the imminent possibility of a European war. In such an event the expenditure of life and treasure would be simply incalculable, and without doubt the map of the Continent would be materially changed. Diplomats and statesmen have predicted this war and warned us to govern ourselves accordingly. The Powers have more than once been on the edge of the precipice, but have drawn back, recognizing the fact that each giant has armed himself that he might not be beaten in the fray.

And now the Czar openly declares his belief that war is unnecessary even as a last resort. Russia of all the Powers of Europe!

The country which has a soldiery as innumerable as "the leaves of Vallombrosa," that has been quick to draw the sword for either defence or conquest, whose every historic page is bespattered with drops of blood!

It is a bold move, and well is it that it has been taken by a nation that has every modern implement of destruction, that has given an almost undivided attention to the equipment of an invincible army. That the Czar is in earnest no one doubts. That he has taken this step after careful consultation with other Powers—France and Germany probably—seems to be clear.

It is certainly a consummation devoutly to be wished, and the world ought to be prepared for it in this nineteenth century. There is no more real reason why nations should settle their controversies on the battle field than for individuals to draw sword or pistol in a disagreement. But are we yet governed by reason? That is a serious question. It is to be hoped so.

If the agreement should be entered into, the complexion of human affairs would be changed and history would record only the victories of peace. Human suffering would be diminished and the energies of mankind have a larger freedom. There would be as much need for courage as ever, but it would show itself in different ways. Chivalry would still live, for there is more chivalry in everyday life than was ever known in the tented field.

The whole world is somewhat startled by the Czar's proposition, but if the time is ever coming when swords shall be beaten into ploughshares it may as well come in our day as in the day of our children's children.

LANDS AND PEOPLES.

SPANISH POSSESSIONS CONQUERED BY THE UNITED STATES—CUBA, PORTO RICO, THE PHILIPPINES, THEIR HARBORS, PORTS, CITIES, TOWNS, POPULATION, CLIMATES, SOILS, PRODUCTS, INDUSTRIES, HABITS, CUSTOMS, ETC.



CRISTOBAL COLON, as Columbus was called in Spanish, set in motion, in 1492, the course of events which gave Spain not only the great group of islands which he falsely claimed to be "the Isles of India beyond the Ganges," and which were from that wrongly named the "West Indies," but also the whole Pacific coast of South America, and an indefinite hold from the south on North America. An independent Portuguese discovery about May 1st, 1500, had given the vast eastern region of the south continent, Brazil, to Portugal. Queen Elizabeth, by extraordinary audacity and success on the seas of both the old world and the new, so shattered the power of Spain as to secure North America to English settlement from about 1604.

Elsewhere in our history the account is given of the revolutions which swept away the last vestige of Spanish power on the continent. The war of America against Spain brought the last hour of Spain in the new world. From the earliest landing of Christopher Columbus, the navigator, to the moment when the armored cruiser named after him, the *Cristobal Colon*, was sunk on the coast of Cuba, fifty miles west of Santiago, intolerable outrage had characterized Spanish conquest and rule. The story in all its horror of cruelties, ruthless despotism, and outrage of every conceivable kind, is perhaps the darkest in nominally Christian annals. It more than explains and justifies the complete and final expulsion of Spain from America.

This nation is by no means the chief successor to the sovereignty of Spain, though it has entered into possession of much that was hers. It has taken the last of her American colonies, as well as some in other

parts of the world. Some account of our newly acquired possessions belongs properly in this history.

CUBA.

Cuba, the "Pearl of the Antilles," or as Columbus called it, "the fairest land man ever looked upon," is the largest of the West India islands. It was one of Spain's first possessions in this hemisphere, and her last. Its most eastern point, Cape Maysi, is in $74^{\circ}11'$ W. long., and the most western, Cape San Antonio, $84^{\circ}58'$ W. long. Cape de Cruz, the most southern point, is $19^{\circ}47'16''$, and Cape de Guanós, east of Matanzas, the most northern point, $23^{\circ}9'27''$ N. lat. The length of the island from Cape Maysi to Cape San Antonio, along the curved line, is 793 miles. It is widest near the meridian of 77° , where between Punta Maternello on the northern coast, and the mouth of the Rio de la Magdalena, near the Pico Tarquino, it is $127\frac{1}{2}$ miles across. Between Puerto Principe and the Havana, which tract comprehends about four-fifths of the island, it is only 52 miles wide on an average. The western extremity is still narrower, the isthmus between Havana and the port of Batabano being only 28 miles across. The area of Cuba alone is 42,383 square miles; and the islands which are enclosed within the numerous reefs that surround it have an area of about 1,000 square miles. The population according to the latest census, 1841, was 1,007,624, of whom 418,291 were whites, 88,054 free-colored persons (mixed races), 10,974 colored slaves, 64,784 free negroes, and 425,521 negro slaves.

The coastline of Cuba is above 2,000 miles, but hardly one-third of it is accessible to vessels; the remainder is surrounded

by banks, reefs, and rocks. The coast from Cape de Cruz to Cape de Maysi is quite free from danger, and that from Cape Maysi to Punta Maternello has only a few rocks. At Punta Maternello commence the numerous keys of the old Bahama Channel, which extend for more than 300 miles to Punta de Icacos. In this part, or more precisely opposite the Cayo Cruz and Cayo Romano, the old Bahama Channel is narrowest, being only from fifteen to twenty miles across. Between the keys and Cuba is an open sea, which may be navigated by small vessels. From Punta de Icacos to Bahia Honda, west

free from banks and rocks. In the Bay of Xagua, about thirty miles east of the Jardinillos, a spring of fresh water is said to rise in the sea with such force that boats cannot approach it without danger. It is visited by the manati. In the sea between the northern coast of Cuba and the Florida Reef the Gulf Stream commences, but here its current is not strong, and sometimes is hardly perceptible.

Only the southeastern part of Cuba, that which lies between Cape de Cruz, Cape Maysi, and the town of Holguin, is mountainous. This mountain group is called



[One hundred years ago Spain owned nearly all of the United States, all of Mexico, Central America, nearly all of South America, and many of the West Indies—to-day (1898) she has been driven entirely from the Western Hemisphere.]

of Havana, the coast is again free from keys and rocks. To the west of Bahia Honda commences the series of shoals and rocks called Los Colorados, which extend to Cape San Antonio. Thence to Punta de Piedras or Llana Punta, the high coast is free from shoals and rocks; but the keys and shoals commence again to the west of the Isle of Pines, and extend to Cape de Cruz, under the names of Jardinillos, Cayo Breton, Cayos de Las Doce Leguas, and Bancos de Buena Esperanza. Only the coast between Cochinos Bay and Puerto Casilda, near Trinidad, forms an exception, being

Sierra or Montañas del Cobre (Snake Mountains), and probably in its highest parts rises more than 7,200 feet above the sea. On the southern coast the Pico Tarquino also rises to a considerable height. From the Pico Tarquino group a chain of hills of moderate elevation runs in a west-north-west direction, between Puerto Principe and Villa Clara, approaching at first nearer to the southern, but afterwards more to the northern shore. To the northwest of Trinidad stand the Lomas de San Juan which terminate in peaks and needles and rise to about 1,800 feet above the sea. The

elevations of the hills seems to decrease as we advance westward. To the west of the meridian of Matanzas there is only one summit that attains 1,200 feet. In this part the surface of the island is slightly undulating, rising in general only to from 250 to 350 feet above the sea. Along the southern coast large tracts of low country occur. The whole space between Batabano and Xagua is nothing but a low swamp, which extends three or four miles inland.

There are no rivers of any size or importance in Cuba. Some are navigable a few

northern coast. Carboniferous strata are found at the western end of the island. Clays and clay-slates are met with in several places.

Of the metals, copper is that which appears to be of most value. In the Eastern Intendencia, where it is now worked largely by English capitalists, it has hitherto proved most profitable. The ore has also been found near Matanzas, Cienfuegos, Villa Clara, and elsewhere. Gold has been found in the Sierra del Cobre, and in the sand of many of the mountain streams. Lead, said



miles inland for small boats, others are used for irrigating the adjacent fields. The internal traffic, formerly greatly impeded by the badness of the roads, has been much facilitated by the introduction of railways, of which there are now nearly 900 miles in operation.

Calcareous rocks of varied kinds and quality are the prevalent and characteristic formations of the island. But granite occurs in the southeastern part, and schistose rocks occur about the middle of the

to be rich in silver, has also been discovered. Coal is worked in the neighborhood of Havana, and occurs in some other places. Marble of much beauty is quarried; and crystal, flint, and clay of a kind very serviceable in the arts, are obtained.

Cuba partakes in some measure of the climate of the temperate zone, as is proved by the sudden changes of the temperature, in which it in some degree resembles the United States. Humboldt mentions a change of 15° in the course of three hours.

cultivation probably does not exceed one-twelfth; the uncultivated part contains large prairies, or savannas, on which the cattle pasture, but the greatest part is overgrown with large forest-trees, some of which supply excellent timber for ship-building.

The narrowness of the island and the abundance of good harbors make nearly all parts of it convenient to maritime transportation. Perhaps no country in the world is so blessed with harbors. They are nearly all pouch-shaped inlets indenting the coast, with narrow outlets pointed by elevated reef rock and capable of accommodating large numbers of vessels. They are so conveniently situated as regards different portions

num. About 1,200 ocean vessels, steam and sail, annually clear from Havana, while the sugar crop finds an outlet at all the principal ports. Lines of steamers coast the island, the north coast being served by lines from Havana, and the south by lines from Batabano, the southern entrepôt of Havana. The tonnage of Havana and eight other ports for 1894 amounted to 3,538,539 tons, carried by 31,181 vessels.

Havana, which bears upon its escutcheon "Llave del Mundo," the "Key of the New World," is the political capital and principal city of Cuba. It is situated mainly on the west and south sides of a capacious harbor and surrounded by eminences rising to 150 feet in height.



of the island that the trade of Cuba may be said literally to pass out at a hundred gates. The chief of these harbors are Havana, Matanzas, Nuevitas, Gibara, Nipe, and Baracoa, on the north coast, and Guantanamo, Santiago de Cuba, Manzanillo, Trinidad, and Cienfuegos, on the south. The last mentioned is said to be one of the finest harbors in the world. Havana, Cienfuegos, and Santiago are regularly visited by American and Spanish steamers, while coastal steamers circumnavigate the island, touching at the minor ports, which are also sought by many tramps and sailing vessels in search of cargoes.

The shipping trade, both foreign and coastal, is extensive, the American tonnage alone amounting to 1,000,000 tons per an-

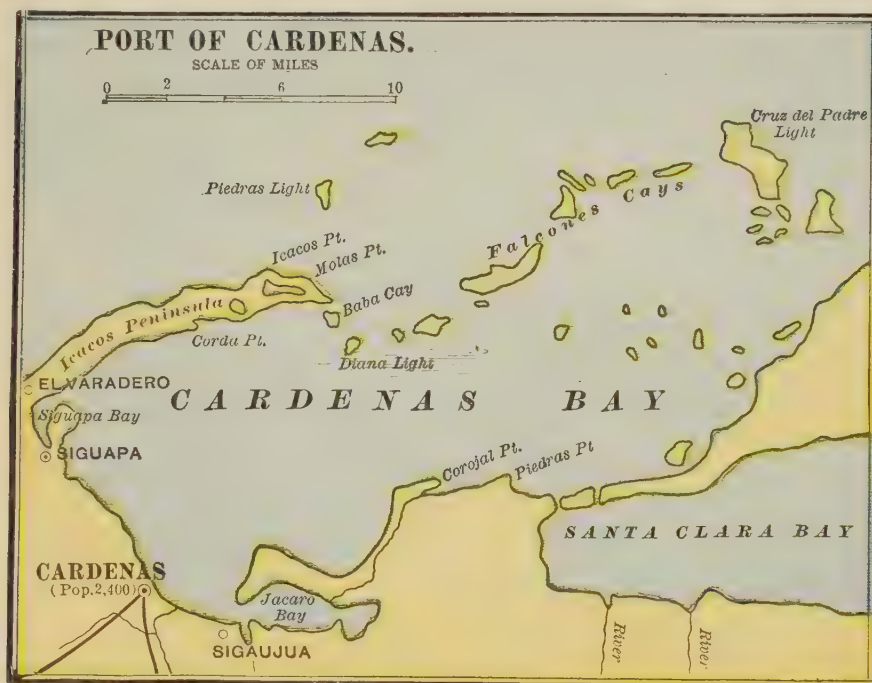
Its commerce is ordinarily enormous, while large pleasure drives, parks, clubs, and public institutions give it picturesque variety. Conspicuous among notable objects are the wharves, fortifications, hospitals, the university, the botanical garden, government palaces, and several churches, including the cathedral, which claims to possess, like Santo Domingo, the remains of Columbus. The city was founded early in the sixteenth century (about 1519) nearly one hundred years before the first colonization of our seaboard. Until recently it was badly supplied with water, and its sewerage is still abominable. In 1895 a modern system of waterworks was installed by New York engineers, who also prepared plans for the solution of the sewerage problem.

The foreign trade of Havana amounts to \$50,000,000 yearly, and is chiefly carried on by American steamers. From the city radiate several lines of railway, which bring to it the products of the interior. The only cable connection with the United States is made here.

West of Havana there are several small ports, such as Mariel, Cabanas, and Bahia Honda, which are similar in their formation to that of Havana, but are places of secondary importance. South and east of the city were flourishing places, the largest of which is Guanabacoa, crowning a hill which com-

It is the chief outlet for that part of the sugar region which stretches south and east toward Cardenas, and which includes the most fertile lands in Cuba. The harbor, like many others, through the *laissez faire* policy of the Spanish Government has been allowed to fill with sediment, and hence the larger steamers are obliged to load in the roadstead.

Cardenas, founded in 1828, is one of the few towns of Cuba which can boast of having been born in this century. It lies on a spacious bay sheltered by a long promontory. It is one of the principal sugar-



mands a fine panoramic view of the capital, its roadsteads and environments.

Havana has easy access to the south coast by rail, terminating at the miserable village of Batabano, 25 miles distant, which is an entrepôt for the city. Here the coastal cable from Santiago touches, and from this point radiate various lines of steamers along the coast and to the Isle of Pines.

The second city and seaport of central Cuba is Matanzas, about 75 miles east of Havana. This city was founded in 1693.

exporting places of Cuba, and is connected by rail with Havana, and by regular steamers with all the coast towns.

East of Cardenas for a considerable distance life and industry are shifted from the northern to the southern seaboard toward Cienfuegos and Trinidad.

Cienfuegos is a modern place, situated on a magnificent harbor. Although surveyed by Ocampo in 1508, and spoken of by Herrera as a haven unrivaled in the world, the town was only settled in 1819 by

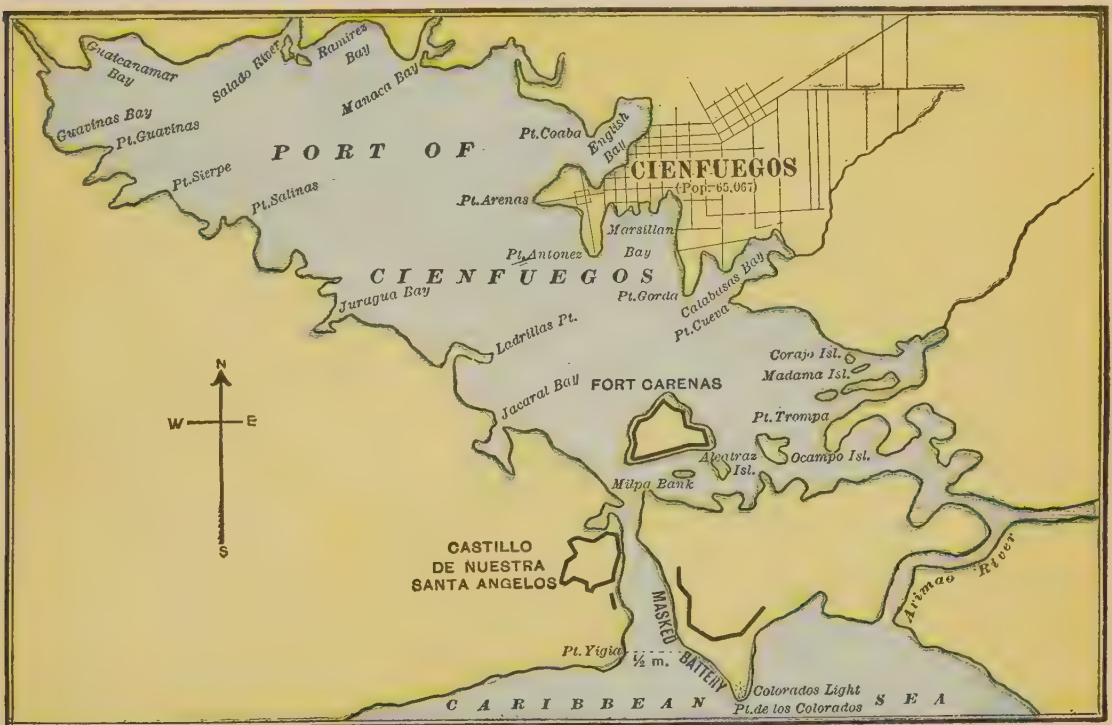
refugees from Santo Domingo. Within the past twenty years its port has increased enormously. It is now the second seaport in the island.

Trinidad, to the east of Cienfuegos, dates from the first years of the conquest, and has no fewer than three harbors and an excellent roadstead. It suffered largely from the incursions of the French and English buccaneers. The city has a picturesque setting, surrounded by high hills and mountains.

East of Trinidad, which is near the central meridian of the island, important cities

the chief interior city of Cuba, and claims to be the most creole of Cuban towns. The city lies on a plain about midway between the two coasts, and is connected by rail with Nuevitas to the northeast.

In the basin of the Cauto, Bayamo is the principal place. This is a very old town, which was founded on a southern affluent of the main stream during the first years of the conquest. It was at Yara, a little southwest of this place, that the great republican rising took place in 1868. The next year, when the Spanish troops made their appear-



begin to appear in the interior, such as Santa Clara, Esperanza, Puerto Principe, and Holguin. These places are the most truly Cuban and representative in their population of any towns on the island.

Santa Clara is a beautiful city, dating from previous centuries, and surrounded by charming scenery. It possessed, the year before the revolution, a cultured creole population.

Camaguey, as the Cubans call the town, or Puerto Principe, as it is officially designated, although remote from the seacoast, is

ance, the inhabitants themselves set fire to their houses. During the present revolution Bayamo has been an important stronghold. Holguin, lying to the northward of the Cauto, is also an important city of this portion of Cuba.

Returning to the northern seacoast, several important points remain to be described east of the central meridian of the island. Without considering the innumerable smaller landings, the principal towns are Nuevitas, Padre, Gibara, Banes, Nipe, and Baracoa. These are all antique and interesting places,

possessing many old ruins and fortifications. Baracoa, the easternmost port of the north coast of the island, is of historic interest, inasmuch as it is the oldest continuous settlement of the New World, having been settled by Diego Columbus, the son of Christopher, in the year 1511. The ruins of his house are still to be seen there.

Returning again to the south side of the island, there are three ports of importance

of the eastern department as well as its most flourishing seaport. It is located on one of the many pouch-shaped harbors with an outlet to the sea through a narrow gateway, like that of Havana, but with an entrance dotted by many islands with handsome villas. At its narrowest part this outlet is only 180 yards wide, but it gives access to a magnificent basin, with many indentions, large enough to accommodate



east of Trinidad, and these are all situated on the south or west coast of the Sierra Maestra peninsula. The westernmost of these is Manzanillo. This is the chief outlet of the fertile valley of the Cauto. Since the close of the ten years' revolution and up to the recent outbreak, it was acquiring an increasing trade in tobacco, sugar, wax, honey, and other produce.

Santiago, as it is called by the Americans, Saint Jago or simply Cuba by the natives, is a port second only to Havana in strategic and political importance. It is the capital

all the shipping of the island. Its many-colored structures, promenades, gardens, and superb prospects over the valley make Santiago one of the most marvelous cities of the Antilles. Back of the city the over-towering cliffs of the Sierra Maestra separate it from the interior. Several lines of railroad run from the city to the iron mines, sixteen miles east, where Pennsylvania capitalists were employing nearly 2,000 hands at the date of the recent outbreak. The city is the telegraphic center from whence radiate the submarine coastal cables of the

island for the western department, Mexico, Jamaica, South America, Hayti, Porto Rico, and the Lesser Antilles.

Perhaps there is no question upon which the American people are so ill-informed as upon that of the population of Cuba. It is impossible to obtain accurate statistics, owing to the fact that no reliable census has been taken by the government for many decades. All figures which may be presented are merely estimates, and great variation is found in those given by different authorities.

The latest census of Cuba, published December 31, 1887, gives the population as follows:—

Provinces.		Area, square klms.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Pr. ct. of colored race.	Density.
Havana	8,610	344,417	107,511	451,928	24	52.49	
Pinar del Rio	8,486	167,160	58,731	225,891	26	26.62	
Matanzas	14,957	143,169	116,409	259,578	45	17.34	
Santa Clara	23,083	244,345	109,777	354,122	31	15.34	
Puerto Principe	32,341	54,232	13,557	67,789	20	2.10	
Santiago de Cuba	35,119	157,980	114,399	272,379	42	7.76	
Total	122,666	1,111,303	520,384	1,631,687	32	13.31	

The population of the principal towns has been estimated as follows:—

Towns.		Population.	
West	Havana	198,720	
	Guanabacoa	29,790	
	Regla	11,280	
	Matanzas	27,000	
	Pinar del Rio	21,770	
	Colon	20,400	
		Cardenas	23,680
East Central	Puerto Principe	46,640	
	Cienfuegos	27,430	
	Santo Espiritu	32,600	
	Trinidad	27,640	
	Santiago	71,300	
	Holguin	34,760	
		Manzanillo	23,200

The experiences of the past have shown that there is no possibility of Cuba becoming Africanized without constant renewal by immigration. The 520,000 colored peo-

ple, one-half of whom are mulattoes, represent the diminished survival of over 1,000,000 African slaves that have been imported. The Spaniards had the utmost difficulty in acclimatizing and establishing this race upon the island. While Jamaica and other West India islands are a most prolific negro-breeding ground, the race could not be made to thrive in Cuba.

Those persons who undertake to say what the social conditions of Cuba would be under independence should look elsewhere than to Hayti for a comparison. Even were the population of Cuba black, as it is not, the island of Jamaica would afford a much better contrast. This island, only about one-tenth the size of Cuba, is composed of mountainous lands like the least fertile portion of Cuba, has a population wherein the blacks outnumber the whites 44 to 1, yet, under the beneficent influence of the English colonial system, its civilization is one of which any land might be proud, possessing highways, sanitation, and other public improvements even superior to those of our own country, and such as have never been permitted by Spain in Cuba. Even though Cuba should become a second Hayti, which it could not, there is some satisfaction in knowing, in the light of historic events, that Hayti free, although still groveling in the savagery which it inherited, is better off than it would have been had Napoleon succeeded in forcing its people back into slavery, as he endeavored to do.

Another fact which will stand against the Africanizing of Cuba is that it is highly probable that nearly one-half of these 500,000 colored people have been destroyed during the present insurrection. A large number of them had but recently been released from the bonds of slavery, and were naturally the poorer class of the island, upon which the hardships have mostly fallen, being generally the field hands in the sugar districts of Havana, Matanzas, and Santa Clara, where the death rate of the terrible Weyler reconcentramiento has been greatest. Three hundred thousand of the 500,000 blacks belonged to these provinces, and of

this number fully one-half have been starved to death.

The rural population of the four western provinces of Pinar del Rio, Havana, Matanzas, and Santa Clara has been totally obliterated. Estimates of this extermination are all more or less conjectural, but the Bishop of Havana is authority for the statement that more than 400,000 people have been buried in the consecrated cemetery.

Cuba is divided into two dioceses, which are the archbishopric of Santiago de Cuba, containing 55 parishes, and the bishopric of Havana, containing 144 parishes. No Cuban-born priests are found in any church of importance. In the cathedral chapter at Havana there is only one Cuban, and only two natives have ever obtained any especial preferment—the miter never.

The same oppression obtains in the Church as in the State, the former being used for base ends in thousands of instances, and against the protest of the authorities at Rome. While nominally Catholics, and so holding that church responsible for what they do, many Spaniards, in and out of Cuba, are very poor Catholics in fact, and they do hundreds of things which the Church authorities by no means approve. For example, the Cuban native who becomes a Roman Catholic priest fares about as badly as does the Protestant preacher.

There is not a parish on the whole island that supports an endowed school. Recently there was a crusade against the civil marriage ceremony. The objection came because of the loss of fees to the priest. The crusade was led by the Spanish-born priest, who charges Cubans fees twice as high as he does Spaniards. Parishes are farmed out on account of profits—not by the Church but by the Spaniards. No priest gets these desirable parishes unless he happens to have been born in Spain. It is the Spanish blood that contaminates the Church, and not the Church that does the injury.

The principal of the outlying islands considered geographically as a part of Cuba is the Isle of Pines, which is situated about thirty-eight miles south of the coast of Pinar del

Rio. This is the only one of the adjacent islands which is not merely an elevated reef or mangrove swamp, and which has a geologic structure and configuration comparable to the mainland. Its area of 1,214 square miles is almost equal to the combined area of the other 1,300 islands and islets.

The island is circular in outline and almost divided by a bayou or salty depression into two divisions, the southernmost of which is a vast cienega or swamp, occupied only by a few fishermen. The main portion of the island is diversified, being dominated by a central ridge of low mountains extending from east to west, rising to 2,000 feet above the sea. Elsewhere the island is quite flat, consisting of land which represents a coralline plain recently reclaimed from the sea.

Steamers from Batabano run to Santa Fé and Nueva Gerona. The latter place is a very small town at the foot of the hills, with plains of palm trees in its neighborhood, the town itself being on the "Rio de Serra de Casa," some distance from its mouth. Santa Fé, which is the prominent place of resort for travelers, is of itself a miserable congregation of houses on the banks of the river of the same name, some distance from its mouth, and also some distance from the steamboat landing. This landing is a rough wooden wharf, from which carriages and stages ply to Santa Fé. Immediately in the neighborhood of Santa Fé there are beautiful drives and walks some distance back, where the country is more rolling and even hilly.

The climate of the Isle of Pines is delightful, the air is pure, dry, and balmy, and the winds coming from the sea, passing over pine forests, are gentle and invigorating.

The inhabitants of the island are a very simple, kind-hearted set of people, and very fond of a chat with strangers. They have a natural dignity of manner, a courteously hospitable way, as also a degree of freshness and innocence.

For many years a large penal colony has been maintained on the island, consisting mostly of Cuban revolutionists.

The trade of the United States with Cuba reached its high-water mark in 1892-93, when it amounted to \$102,864,204, the ratio of imports to exports being approximately as 10 to 3.

This total was almost equal to that of our entire Asiatic trade, was nearly four times that of our trade with China or Japan, and thirteen times that of our trade with Russia, while it even exceeded the grand total of that with Austria-Hungary, Russia, Sweden and Norway, Denmark, Turkey, Greece, Italy, Switzerland, and Portugal combined. Nor

fiscal year 1893-94, when it amounted to 949,778 tons of 2,240 pounds, or over one million tons of 2,000 pounds. This was equivalent to 30 pounds or more per capita of our population, and constituted about one-half of our total consumption. The next item in importance is tobacco, the imports of which reached their highest figures in 1795-96, when they amounted in point of value to considerably more than one-third of the total value of our own tobacco crop. The only other class of imports that calls for special mention consists of fruit



does this contrast derive its strength mainly from the largeness of the imports. The exports themselves, products of our own country, were nearly twice as great in point of value as our exports to Italy, over three times as great as those to China and Japan combined, nearly six times as great as those to Sweden and Norway, and over ten times as great as those to Russia; they amounted to almost half as much again as our total exports to Asia, and even exceeded our total exports to South America, exclusive of Brazil.

The principal article imported is sugar, the largest importation of which was in the

and vegetables, which had a value in 1892-93 of nearly two and one-half million dollars.

The principal articles of exports are, as will be seen from the table, meats, breadstuffs, and manufactured goods, the trade in all of which articles was rapidly assuming very large dimensions at the outbreak of the insurrection. Coal, coke, and oils were also exported in considerable quantities; indeed, so diversified were our exports that there is no considerable section of the entire country that was not to a greater or less degree benefited by the market for our agricultural, mineral, and manufactured products that existed in Cuba.

Between 1893-94 and 1896-97, however, our imports from Cuba suffered a decline of 75.7 per cent., and our exports to the island a decline of 61.7 per cent., the imports being reduced to less than one-fourth and the exports to little more than one-third of their previous volume. During the first year of the insurrection our trade fell off over \$30,000,000, during the second year a further sum of \$18,000,000, and during the third year a still further sum of \$21,000,000, making a total decline of \$69,000,000 in the annual value of our foreign trade, and of a branch of it, moreover, that is carried almost entirely in American bottoms.

PORTO RICO.

Porto Rico, the second and smaller of Spain's last colonies in the Western Hemisphere, is the most eastern island of the fine chain of the Greater Antilles in the West Indies. On the east the Lesser Antilles sweep in a great bow toward Trinidad, on the South American coast, inclosing on the westward the Caribbean Sea. Of these, St. Thomas, a Danish island and coaling station, is of greater strategical importance. It is southwest from the capital of Porto Rico, about ninety miles away. A strait of seventy miles separates the island from Hayti on the west. The distances of San Juan from other strategical points are 2,100 miles to Cape Verde Islands, 1,050 miles to Key West, and 1,420 miles to Hampton Roads. There are smaller islands which belong to the colony, especially on the eastern coast, but they are of slight importance.

The main island is a parallelogram in general outline, one hundred and eight miles from the east to the west, and from thirty-seven to forty-three miles across. It has an area computed at 3,530 square miles, or not quite half that of New Jersey. The little island on the east of Viequez, on which is the town of Gabel Seguada, is a military penal station.

The population in 1887 numbered 798,565, of whom 474,933 were white, 246,647 mulattoes, and 76,905 negroes. Slavery was abolished in 1873. Three years later the

colony was declared to be a representative province of Spain and divided into seven departments.

Cape San Juan is on the northeastern corner of the island. Going thence southward along the east coast, the Port Fajardo is reached, which is nothing but a channel sheltered by the small islands of Obispo, Zancudo, and Ramos. There are other ports and anchorages on this coast where the sea is generally calm, prevailing winds being the easterly trades. Near the northeast coast runs the Sierra de Loquillo, in which the peak of El Yunquo reaches the highest elevation on the island, 3,600 feet. Here the coast is broken and forbidding. The north shore is almost straight, and presents no shelter between Cape San Juan and the port of the same name thirty miles west, which is described further on. Here the sea is full of rocks, over which the swell tumbles in heavy breakers. Further west lies the town and port of Manati, with 5,000 inhabitants. It is the least dangerous port between San Juan and Arecibo, although it is an open roadstead, and in the windy season vessels cannot reach the shore. Rounding Punta de Bruquen, which is the northwestern corner of the island, Aguadilla, or Sana Carlos de Aguadilla, is reached, on the west coast. It is on the banks of a fine stream of water. It is one of the busiest ports in the island, and affords a fine anchorage in summer, close to shore; but in winter it is unsafe.

Passing Punta San Francisco, the most western point of the island, there comes into view Punta Algarrebo, the shores of which form the northern boundary of the Bay of Mayagues. The city of this name lies inland a few miles, near a river, at the mouth of which its port is located. It has twelve thousand inhabitants, military barracks, an iron bridge, a good trade, gas-light, and there are sixteen feet of water in its harbor, but the entrance is difficult.

Punta Guanajibo forms the southern shore. Pilots are needed all along this coast.

Cape Agulla is the southwestern extrem-

ity of the island. Between this and the Morrillos of Cape Rojo is the Bay of Selinas, with from ten to twenty feet of water, but not well protected. Navigation along the southern coast requires great care. Between Cape Rojo and Punta de la Brea is a long line of cliffs, called de la Marguerite, between which and the mainland are inlets, like the coast thoroughfares of Maine or New Jersey, affording many good anchorages, but these cannot be reached without a pilot.

est slope being on the north, so that the rivers on that coast are much the longer. From this chain several branches diverge toward the north coast, giving it a rugged appearance. Part of the main range is called Sierra Grande, or Barros; its northeast spur is known as the Sierra de Loquillo; that on the northwest is the Sierra Lareo.

The most of the population is located on the lowlands at the sea front of the hill. For lack of roads the interior is accessible



The port of Guanico, the largest anchorage ground on the southern coast of Porto Rico, lies fifteen miles east of Cape Rojo, with fifteen to thirty-three feet of water over a bottom of sand and broken rock. The coast presents no further interest until we come to Ponce, which port is one of the most important on the island. Still further east is Guayama, with the port of Arroya near by on the south coast.

Porto Rico is traversed from east to west by a mountain range, dividing the island into two unequal portions, by far the long-

only by mule trains or saddle paths, and it is covered with vast forests.

There are interesting caves in the mountains, those of Aguas Buenas and Ciales being the most notable. Rivers and brooks are numerous, forty-seven very considerable rivers having been enumerated. They are short and rapid, especially on the Caribbean slopes, which are steep and abrupt. The mountains intercept the northeast trade winds, blowing from the Atlantic, and wring their moisture from them, so that the rainfall of the north section is very copious.

South of the mountains severe drouths occur, and agriculture demands irrigation, but such work is unsystematically carried on.

The principal minerals found in Porto Rico are gold, carbonates and sulphides of copper, and magnetic oxide of iron in large quantities. Lignite is found at Utuado and Moca, and also yellow amber. A large variety of marbles, limestones, and other building stones are deposited on the island, but these resources are undeveloped. There are salt works at Guanica and Salinas, on the south coast, and at Cape Rojo, on the west, and this constitutes the principal mineral industry in Porto Rico. Hot springs and mineral waters are found at Juan Diaz, San Sebastian, San Loronzo, and Ponce, but the most famous is at Coamo, near the town of Santa Isabel.

The climate is hot, but much alleviated by the prevailing northeast winds. A temperature as high as 117° has been recorded, but it seldom exceeds 97° in the shade during the hottest hours; at night it sinks to 68° or 69° .

The rainy season lasts from August to December, and the rainfall is at times so copious north of the mountains as to inundate cultivated fields and produce swamps. The rainfall for 1878 was 81 inches. Its mean annual average is $64\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The prevailing diseases are yellow fever, elephantiasis, tetanus, marsh fever and dysentery.

Porto Rico is unusually fertile, and its dominant industries are agriculture and lumbering. In elevated regions the vegetation of the temperate zone is not unknown. There are more than five hundred varieties of trees found in the forests, and the plains are full of palm, orange and other trees. The principal crops are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton and maize; but bananas, rice, pine-apples and many other fruits are important.

The wild dog is the most predaceous quadruped on the island, and he chiefly attacks pigs and calves. Mice are a pest, but they are kept down by their natural enemies, the

snakes, which reach a length of from six to nine feet. Numerous species of ants and bees are found, as well as fireflies, or *cu-cuyos*. They fly at times in great masses, producing weird and splendid effects in the tropical nights. Poultry is abundant, and the seas and rivers are full of the finest of fish.

Railways are in their infancy, and cart roads are deficient. Telegraphic lines connect the principal towns, while submarine cables run from San Juan to St. Thomas and Jamaica.

The capital of the province is San Juan Bautista, founded by Ponce de Leon. It is located on the small island of Morro, now connected with the mainland by the San Antonio bridge. The district of its name contains 27,000 inhabitants. On the western end of the island Ponce de Leon built the Governor's palace, inclosed within the Santa Catalina fortifications, where also are the Cathedral, Town House and theatre. This portion of the city is now called Pueblo Viejo. It is an Episcopal see, subordinate to the Archbishop of Santiago de Cuba. There are two tramways and also railways to Ponce and to other places. Its principal exports are sugar, coffee and tobacco.

The harbor of San Juan is enveloped on the east and south by swamps. On the west it is sheltered by the islands of Cabra and Cabrita, which a sandbank practically connects with the mainland. This site of the city comprises four small bays and two rocks, of which the one nearest the coast is a half mile west of the Morro. It is strongly fortified for the defense of the entrance to the outer harbor. The interior harbor is landlocked, capacious and safe, and is being dredged to a uniform depth from docks to anchorage of twenty-nine feet.

Four wards are comprised in the old city. Three are outside of the fortifications, and, extending up the hillsides like an amphitheatre, present a picturesque panorama when seen from the harbor.

The houses are of stone, usually one story high, and have roof gardens, from which fine marine views may be enjoyed. Almost

every house has a garden in its "patio" or court.

The defenses of San Juan were San Felipe del Morro, at the entrance to the harbor. It was the principal defense against attacks from the sea, had three rows of batteries, which could converge their cross-fire on any point in the harbor, and was separated by a strong wall from the city at its rear. Within this fortification were the lighthouse, barracks, large water-tanks, stores, a chapel and necessary offices. A tunnel giving access for troops and provisions, communicated with the shore, and was defended by a battery.

San Cristobal defends the city from the land side, and extends over the whole width of the island in which the city is built. Firing can be effected in all directions. Two large barracks are therein.

Higher up the hill is the Caballero Fortress, with twenty-two cannon, commanding the city and its environs by land and sea. Santiago and Principe are smaller fortifications, as are also Abanico and Fort Canuelo, at the entrance of the harbor. Yet these forts are of the pattern of two hundred years ago; the ordnance is old and mostly smoothbore, and the walls are crumbling, like most of the forts in Cuba.

According to the latest Spanish statistics, obtained at the Bureau of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, the importations into Porto Rico during 1896 amounted to \$18,945,793, and the exports to \$17,295,535.

Articles of import are distributed by countries as follows: From Spain come wines, rice, oils, flour and textiles; from England, machinery, textiles, salted provisions, rice and coal; from France, a small amount of textiles, some jewelry and perfumery, and some fine wines and liquors; from Italy, wines, vermicelli and rice; from Germany, glass and porcelain wares, textiles, paper, cheese, candied fruits, beer and liquors; from Holland, cheese; from Cuba, rum, sugar and tobacco; from the United States, petroleum, ironware, glassware, chemicals, textiles, paper, lumber, barrels, machinery, carriages, dried and salted meats,

butter, grease, codfish, flour, coal, fruits, vermicelli and cheese.

The trade with the United States during the last five years has been as follows:—

	Exports to United States.	Imports from United States.
1893.....	\$4,008,623	\$2,510,007
1894.....	3,135,634	2,720,508
1895.....	1,506,512	1,833,544
1896.....	2,296,653	2,102,094
1897.....	2,181,024	1,988,883

The principal exports from the United States are flour, pork, lard, lumber and shooks.

THE PHILIPPINES.

Among the last colonial possessions of Spain, the most highly prized were the Philippine Islands in the East Indies. This splendid archipelago is divided into three great groups of islands called Luzon, Visayas or Bisayas, and Mindanao. Luzon includes the provinces of Manila, Bulacan, Pampanga, Carlac, Zambales, Bataan, New Ecija, Pangasinan, North Ilocos, Abra, Union, New Viscaya, Cagayan, Laguna, Batangas, Tayabas, Albay, North and South Camariñas, Sorsogon, and the districts of Principe, Lepanto, Bontoc, Benguet, Morong and Infanta, and the adjacent islands Babuyanes and Batanes on the north, Polillo, Alhabat, Catanduanes and Marlanas on the east, Mindoro, Burias, Masbate and Marinduque on the south, and Calamianes, Paraguay and Balabac on the east. The second group, the Bisayas or Visayas, is made up of Cebu, Bohol, Samar, Leyte and the island of Negros with its districts Capiz, Romblon, Iloilo and Concepcion; and of the adjacent islands Sibuyan, Banton, Tablas, Luciana, Maestro de Campo, Bantayan, Dauis and Camote to the north and northeast, and of the island of Fuego or Siquijor to the south. The third group, or sea of Mindanao, which is the part of the archipelago least subject to the Spaniards, is divided into the districts of Zamboanga, Misamis, Suriago, New Guipuzgoa, Davao Bislig and Basilan, with the adjacent islands Camiguin, Caburao, Duiagat, Asgño, Oyarzal and Vivero to the northeast; Siluanga and General on the east; Buentua, Tongquil, Balanguingi and Sulu, with all the islands that make up the group of that



name, in the southeast. Altogether there are estimated to be 1,200 islands in the Philippine Archipelago. Its wealth of timber is incalculable, yielding rosins, gums, mastic pastes, dye products, fine-grained ornamental woods, also heavy timber suitable for building purposes. There are also mines in abundance in Mencayan and Lepanto. In Lupac and Agbas copper is found, and copper and iron pyrites in Suyne. In Paracale and North Camariñas there are veins of gold worked by the natives. In the rivers of Sapan, Casiguran and New-Ecija there is found gold pyrites of good quality. In Mambulao and Camariñas there are some gold mines in operation. There are many hot springs of iron and sulphur waters, all of excellent medicinal properties. The famous "Holy Waters" of Tuii and Sibu are visited every year in large numbers by the islanders seeking relief from their sufferings. The endemic complaints of the country are swamp fever, diarrhœa, beri-beri and a few others. Incurable leprosy is limited among the natives. The mortality is low, considering the number of inhabitants.

Dr. Augustin de la Cavada, a Spanish historian, says of the natives that they are of a mild, submissive and respectful disposition, predisposed to religious observances, extremely superstitious and very hospitable. Those of Batangas, Cagayan and Southern Ilocos are better workers and more industrious than those of the other provinces. During their youth they work with energy and a certain intellectual vigor, but on reaching a more advanced age they lose a large part of their disposition for work and lapse into an indolence that is one of their greatest defects. The women are averse to idleness and have a spirit of enterprise, and they often engage in various trades with success. They are economical and sacrifice themselves with delight for the sake of those for whom they feel any affection.

The rivers and streams of the Philippines are countless and traverse the islands in all directions, the natural result of mountain

peaks and ranges that extend over a large area.

The most noteworthy volcanoes are Bu-heyán, in Mindanao; Taal, in Batangas, and Bulusan and Mayon, in Albay. The last is in continual eruption, and at times creates terror in the surrounding country, on account of the quantity of boiling water, ashes, and lava it throws out. In 1872 an eruption of this volcano destroyed entirely the villages of Malinao, Camalig, Guinobatan, Ligao, Polangui and Albay.

MANILA.

Manila, the capital of the Philippines, is situated on the island of Luzon, at the mouth of the river Pasig, which empties itself into the bay of Manila. The city was founded in 1571. In 1645 it was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, in which upward of three hundred lives were lost. In 1863 a great part of the city was again destroyed from the same cause, and in July, 1880, another terrible upheaval made wreck of a great portion of it. The inhabitants are naturally in constant fear of these visitations. The dwelling-houses are built with special reference to safety under such circumstances, and, although large, possess few pretensions to architectural beauty. The city proper within the walls is small, and contains a scanty population, but the larger Government buildings and religious institutions are grouped there. The suburbs, of which Binondo ranks first in order of importance, are the centers of trade and industry. The Escolta, the main business street, traverses this suburb, and in it most of the European stores and bazaars are to be found. The Rozario, another broad thoroughfare in Binondo, is occupied chiefly by Chinese shops, and is a busy quarter. San Miguel is the aristocratic suburb, being the seat of the residences of the wealthy merchants and other residents. The architecture of Manila is not imposing, successive earthquakes having wrought much damage, and the city has an Old World aspect, tempered by its tropical surroundings. The streets present the

greatest animation in the evening, when the cigar factories are closed and the carriages of the upper classes are out for the customary promenade. There are several ancient churches which are worthy of notice. The Cathedral, founded originally in 1578, has been several times destroyed by earthquakes, and did not escape in 1863. It has since been rebuilt, but again sustained considerable damage in 1886, when the tower was so much shattered that it had to be pulled down. There are several theatres, but none worthy of the place.

ports cotton goods form the chief item. The anchorage is distant some three miles from the shore. The river presents a scene of great animation, being crowded with native craft, interspersed with vessels of foreign build. The police force of the city is under military discipline, and is composed of natives. A new department of the police has recently been formed, called the Municipal Guard. There is also a force of watchmen, who patrol from 10 o'clock at night until 5 o'clock in the morning through the more populous parts of the city, and are



The opera is well supported in Manila. A statue of Charles IV. stands in the center of the Palacio Square, and one of Isabella II. opposite to the Variedades. The Observatory, admirably managed by the Jesuit Fathers, is well worthy of a visit. There is a good English club. Of the hotels, the Hotel de Oriente is the principal. The city with its suburbs contains a population of 100,000, and is the seat of a considerable and yearly increasing commerce. The principal articles of export are hemp, sugar, tobacco, cigars, coffee and indigo, while of the im-

paid by the merchants and tradesmen. A very low average of crime is said to exist, but the native classes are much addicted to gambling, an offense punishable by law, although the Government reaps a large portion of its revenue from the sale of lottery tickets. A race meeting is held in the spring. There are six daily papers, *El Diario de Manila*, *La Oceania Española*, published in the morning, and *El Comercio*, *La Voz Española*, *El Español* and *El Noticero*, which are published in the evening. The hot season begins in March and

continues until July. The rains begin in August and continue to December, during which time the roads and streets get into bad condition. The maximum annual rainfall recorded is 114 inches and the minimum 84 inches. The maximum of the thermometer is about 92°; a cool breeze sets in at night, reducing the heat to an endurable temperature for sleeping. According to the census of 1883, there were residing in Manila 250 foreigners of European origin, 4,189 European Spaniards, 15,157 Chinese, 46,066 Chinese mestizos (or half-breeds), 1,849 Spanish mestizos, and 160,896 pure natives.

In 1880 special dues were imposed on the trade of the port for the construction of a new harbor, namely two per cent. on imports, one per cent. on exports, tonnage dues, and a tax on fishing boats. The total sum collected amounts now to a large figure, and the works are in progress.

Tramways run in the principal streets of the city, and a railway to Dagupan was opened to traffic throughout its entire length, 123 miles, on November 23, 1892. There is also a steam road to Malabon, and electric lights have been put up in the public squares and walks, in the business houses and in the principal streets. There are a marine arsenal and a patent slip at Cavité, on the opposite side of the bay. It has also been decided to make an important naval station and arsenal at Subic, slightly to the north of Manila, at the entrance to the bay. In connection with these works it is proposed to construct a branch line railway from Dagupan to Libre close to Subic. This branch line, joining the Manila Railway Company's line at Dagupan, will be constructed by the Government.

The city and its suburbs receive their drinking water by pipes leading from Santalan, on the river Pasig. The water is carried to fountains, distributed in convenient places through the streets, whence the inhabitants may draw for their domestic needs. The telephone system extends throughout the city and out as far as Malabon. Manila possesses many educa-

tional and charitable institutions, among others the Royal and Pontifical University of St. Thomas which is managed and maintained by the Dominican Fathers. In this there are schools of theology and church law, jurisprudence, notarial law, medicine and pharmacy. The college of St. Thomas, which belongs to the University, maintains forty free scholarships for Spanish boys, who may pursue both primary and advanced studies. The College of San Juan de Letran, also under the Dominicans, devotes itself to the education of natives, and this college, as well as the other, is provided with an abundance of select scientific materials, and with good physical and chemical outfits and exhibits, and museums of natural history and fine arts. The College of San José (St. Joseph) is under the immediate direction of the Viceregal Patron and in this college instruction is given in medicine and pharmacy. The Orphan Asylum of Cambobong founded by the Ladies' Union at Manila in 1882, is in charge of the Augustinians, and imparts elementary and advanced instruction, and qualifies boys for clerical situations, both in public and business offices. The Mandaloya Orphanage, likewise under the care of the Augustinians and of the Sisters of that order, gives to its inmates elementary instruction, and teaches them household duties and other accomplishments suited to their sex. St. Joseph's Home, founded in 1810, is under the immediate control of the Viceregal Patron, and its object is to give shelter to poor and demented children. The Hospital of San Juan de Dios founded by the Brotherhood of Misericordia in 1595, and also under the control of the Viceregal Patron, cares for whatever invalids present themselves. It has six physicians, one pharmacist, one lady superior, twenty-two sisters, two chaplains, one head nurse, eight resident medical students, and the number of other qualified assistants that the service requires. The Hospital of San Lazaro, founded in 1578 by the Franciscan Order, is for the care of leprous patients. The Manila Monté de

Piedad and Savings Bank, organized in 1880 under the control of the Viceregal Patron, is designed, first, to receive pledges of furniture, jewelry and household articles, against which it lends money at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum; and, secondly, to receive savings, deposits on which it pays 4 per cent. per annum. It has several branches. Matters relating to public health and charity are under the supervision of the General Department of Charity and Health, which has under it the Board of Charities and Marine Sanitation, the bathing establishments, the lesser Boards of Medicine, Pharmacy, the Association of Graduate Physicians, the vaccinating staff, and the city hospitals and leper retreat. There is also a society, founded in 1780, called the Royal Polytechnic Society of Friends of the Country. Its object is to promote investigation into the arts, science, commerce and trade. The Library Museum was formally opened in 1891. There are three banks in Manila—the Spanish Philippine, the Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, and the Hong Kong and Shanghai Bank, the last of which has also a branch in Iloilo. There are numerous social societies, among which are the Spanish Casino, the Musical Society of the Philippines and of St. Cecilia, the Manila and Nagatayan Club, with a branch in San Gabriel, the German Union Casino, the Mariquina Gun Club, the Gun Club of San Juan del Monte, the Manila Jockey Club, the Manila Lawn Tennis Club and the Cycle Club of Manila. The Chamber of Commerce was established in 1886. Its object is to watch over and protect the interests of commerce, trade and shipping, and, in the capacity of a mercantile court, to pass upon the questions and contentions that may be submitted to it by its members. The Mint was authorized by royal decree on September 8, 1857; the coinage began in 1861 and ceased in 1889, and in 1893 the establishment was reopened for the striking of subsidiary coins.

ILOILO.

The port of Iloilo, which is the chief town

of the populous province of the same name on the island of Panay, is situated in latitude $10^{\circ} 48'$ W., near the southeastern extremity of the island, close to the sea, on the border of the narrow channel formed by the opposite island of Guimaras. The town is built principally on low, marshy ground, partly fronting the sea and partly along the left bank of a creek or inlet which runs toward Jaro, and after describing a semicircle again meets the sea near Iloilo. Although the principal seaport and seat of the government of the province, Iloilo is much smaller than many towns in its vicinity. The harbor is well protected and the anchorage good, the island of Guimaras forming a sheltered passage. The depth of water on the bar at the entrance to the creek or river Iloilo is about five fathoms at low water, but at a short distance within it decreases to fifteen feet and then deepens again. At spring tides the whole town is covered with water, but, notwithstanding this, it is a healthy place. The high ground of Guimaras forms a kind of funnel with the Panay shore, and the result is that a calm is a rare occurrence, there being almost always a breeze of some kind. The northeast breeze blows strongly. It is much cooler in Iloilo than in Manila. The better class of houses in Iloilo are built on strong wooden posts, two or three feet in diameter, that reach to the roof; stone walls to the first floor, with wooden windows above, and an iron roof. The poorer class of dwellings are flimsy structures of nipa, built on four stout posts. The means of communication with the interior are still inadequate, and retard the development of the port.

The principal manufacture in Iloilo for local consumption and export to Manila is that of pina, a cloth finely made from the fibre of the pine-apple leaf. Another cloth, called jusi, is woven from silk, and is made in white and colors. The country around Iloilo is fertile, and is extensively cultivated. The annual crop of sugar is estimated at about 1,000,000 piculs. Tobacco is largely cultivated. Rice is grown on a considerable

scale, but locusts are plentiful on the island and often do great damage to the cane and paddy. Typhoons frequently work great havoc. Earthquakes, however, seldom occur. Iloilo is about two hundred and fifty miles distant from Manila. The principal traders are Chinese mestizos, who are numerous in the port. The island of Negros is extremely fertile, and contributes three-fourths of the sugar shipped from Iloilo, the quality of which is excellent.

CEBU.

The port of Cebu is the capital of the island of Cebu, and ranks next to Iloilo among the ports of the Philippines. It was at one time the seat of the administration of revenue for the whole of the Bisayas, but this was removed to Manila in 1849. Cebu is a well-built town and possesses fine roads, but the people are devoid of commercial enterprise. The trade of Cebu consists principally of hemp and sugar. The neighboring islands of Leyte, Mindanao and Camiguin possess extensive hemp plantations, a large proportion of the produce of which finds its way to Cebu for shipment. There are some valuable and extensive coal deposits on the island of Cebu, but the mines have not as yet been worked with any enterprise.

In addition to the fourteen hundred islands of the Philippine Archipelago the Spanish possessions in the Western Pacific included the Caroline group of between 500 and 800 islands and islets which stretch for over a thousand miles eastward from the Philippines, and the Mariana or Ladrone group lying just north of the Carolines in 145° long. The Mariana Islands are comparatively unimportant, only five of them being inhabited, their population, according to the last Spanish census of 1887, presenting a phenomenal disproportion of sexes, consisting of 861 males and 4 females. Magellan, who discovered the group in 1521, called them "Las Islas de Los Ladrones," meaning the Islands of the Thieves, but this name was changed to Mariana in honor of the Queen of Philip IV. of Spain.

The Caroline Islands have usually been

considered under Spanish sovereignty under the bull of Pope Alexander VI. in 1594, dividing the New World between Spain and Portugal, but the question of ownership was raised by the English and German Governments in 1875, and ten years later Germany hoisted the war flag over them and took possession, leading quickly to complications that almost upset the peace with Europe until the dispute was referred to the mediation of the Pope, who subsequently affirmed the Spanish title. The islands, according to the latest Spanish estimate, contain over 35,000 inhabitants who are much superior intellectually to the woolly-haired race south of the Equator, being practically identical with the Hawaiians, and by many ethnologists supposed to be related to the Caucasian family. They are, however, savage in habits except where they have been elevated by the efforts of American missionaries who, with a few traders, constitute the sole white population of the group.

There are evidences on some of the islands of an extinct civilization, but the natives go nearly naked, tattoo their bodies, are given to licentiousness and intemperance, and have been greatly demoralized through intercourse with European traders. They have not only deteriorated morally and physically, but have declined in numbers through contact with the whites. The American missionaries established themselves on the larger islands in 1851 and through their influence civilization and education have spread through the whole archipelago. These missionaries have established over fifty churches with 4,000 communicants and have reduced to writing five of the dialects and printed in them various school books and parts of the Bible. Nearly all the trade is in the hands of German and English firms, the Spanish influence being altogether superficial.

Situated as the Ladrone are, on the route between Central America and Japan and China, they will be of special value as a coaling station when the Panama Canal is opened. Formerly the Ladrone were a coaling place of all vessels plying between

the Americas and Asia, and the chief rendezvous of the whaling fleets passing between the northern and southern seas during the fishing season. Notwithstanding the paramount strategic value of the islands, the Spanish Government attributed little or none to them until the Jesuits colonized them in the reign of Philip IV. The Ladrões, or "Thieves" group, consists of sixteen islands. There are in the group no less than four active volcanoes. The principal island is Guam, or Guajan, where is situated the official capital, San Ignacio de Agano, which is about five miles from the port of San Luis de Apra, or Piti. This island is fifty-four kilometres from north to south, with a width varying between seven and fourteen kilometres from east to west. The Ladrões were inhabited when the Spaniards took possession by more than 100,000 souls, but the Spanish Government forced those living in the other islands to concentrate in Guam, where for want of supplies and shelter they were decimated and reduced to their present numbers, which are only about 7,000. The object of this concentration was to prevent the great British navigators from taking provisions and water from these islands on their voyages to and from Asia and the Americas. The natives were partly of the same race as those inhabiting the Carolines, and partly of the same race as those in Hawaii, with which groups there was annual communication. The aboriginal stock, however, has already disappeared, the present population being formed of descendants of Mexicans, Spanish, and Tagalos (Filipinos). They have their own language. Since 1825 these islands have been used as a Spanish political convict station. Guam is now, strictly speaking, the only extensively inhabited island. Tinian has about 500 inhabitants, brought from the Carolines in the year 1870. These islands, formerly very rich in natural resources, were lately reduced to destitution, and supplies for the inhabitants had to be sent from Manila by a yearly ship. The island of Rota, one of the group, is filled with pigs, left there by the American

whalers, and which have multiplied exceedingly. In the island of Saipan there is an abundance of wild cattle, also left there for breeding purposes by the American whalers. Saipan and Rota are leased by an American citizen, who has about three hundred employees in both islands for the killing and salting of pigs and cattle, which are sold or exchanged for goods when the whalers call there, or are shipped to Guam for consumption. The island of Pagan is full of goats, left there also by the whalers. There are five or six Americans and Kanakas who trade in these goats with the whalers. In the island of Tinian there is an establishment for lepers, where a few unfortunates drag out a miserable existence without doctors, attendants, or medicine. The principal industry in the islands at present is the distillation of alcohol from the liquid obtained from the cocoanut trees. Trade is limited to the importation of cloth, provisions, and various alcoholic drinks, such as gin, brandy and whisky, payments being made with the money received from Manila by the officers and the small detachments of soldiers kept there. Alcohol is exported from the islands to the Carolines, New Guinea and the Southern Archipelagoes. Since 1872 some successful fisheries have been established. The production of copper has been lately largely developed. It is exported to Hong Kong and Japan, which are now the only real markets for the few products of the island apart from the alcoholic industry referred to.

On June 21, 1898, Captain Glass of the United States steamship *Charleston*, captured the Ladrone Islands, took the Governor-General, his staff and the entire military force prisoners, and raised the Stars and Stripes over the ruins of the Spanish fort of Santa Cruz, in the harbor of San Luis o'Apra. It was a bloodless victory; for the Spaniards, not yet having heard of the war between their country and the United States, were taken completely by surprise, and surrendered the islands, their arms and themselves without offering the slightest resistance.

The harbor of San Luis o'Apra, on the west coast of the main island, Guam, is an ideal coaling station, and the whole group will undoubtedly prove to be of incalculable value to the United States. Guam lies 3,300 miles west by south from Honolulu, 1,350 miles southeast of Yokohama, 1,500 miles east of Luzon, the principal island of the Philippine group, thus being the connecting link between the United States and the Orient.

The Carolines proper are an assemblage of little groups of islands and islets, of reefs and atolls, extending east and west from 137° to 164° E. long., which would not, despite their formidable array of names, cover a greater surface than is occupied by St. Petersburg and its suburbs, if we except two large volcanic islands. The entire dry surface of the Carolines proper is about 345 square miles, and the population 18,000.

Two important volcanic islands are Ponapi or Ascension, and Kousaie, Oulan or Strong; and these, with Rouk or Hogolou, are known as the High Islands; the rest, some 500 in number, being atolls, the work of zoöphytes, which have strewn with dangerous rocks the route of the navigator. Many of the latter are uninhabited. The archipelago is naturally divided into three principal groups of unequal extent, and these were subdivided by the natives into what might be called political groups, consisting each of a number of islands united under the authority of a *tamol*, or chief, his residence being the capital of a little kingdom. Captain Lutké counted ten of these island kingdoms in two of the natural groups, and the French naturalist Gaymard has left a sort of political description of one of these little empires of the sea.

The High Islands are described as presenting to the eye immense forest glades, with giant trees on every hand, their boughs and trunks covered with wondrously graceful ferns, the seeds of which have doubtless been sown by the winds. Long streamers of various growths depend from

the lofty branches, and the long cord-like stems of the yam remind the visitor of the rigging of a ship. "One tree," says a recent writer, "had roots like a cluster of organ pipes; they grew closely together to a distance of ten feet from the ground, and then resolved themselves into one trunk. The scanty branches were ornamented with graceful ribbon-like foliage and heavy fruit." This was a *pandanus*, and perhaps at a little distance a bunch of palms will rock their sinuous forms to and fro, and, amid the growths, the pretty scarlet hibiscus, a kind of spirea, and a white, waxy flower, with the scent of the tuberose, will be seen growing in profusion. In the dense, impressive shade, black, velvety birds flit about without sound, and now and then a flying-fox sails overhead on its outstretched wings.

The little banks of sand and coral known as the Low Islands might be supposed, on account of their want of soil and their exposure to the salt spray so inimical to vegetation, to be devoid of plant life; but here are found the cocoanut tree, the breadfruit tree, and even the Barringtonia and other trees, which attain enormous dimensions, serving thus as lighthouses or beacons to the native navigators. Their roots drive themselves into the clefts of the coral, upheaving great pieces and thus producing cavities which are filled up again with dead leaves and other organic débris; and thus a bit of soil is formed for the germination of new plants, whose seeds are to be sown by the winds, the currents and the birds.

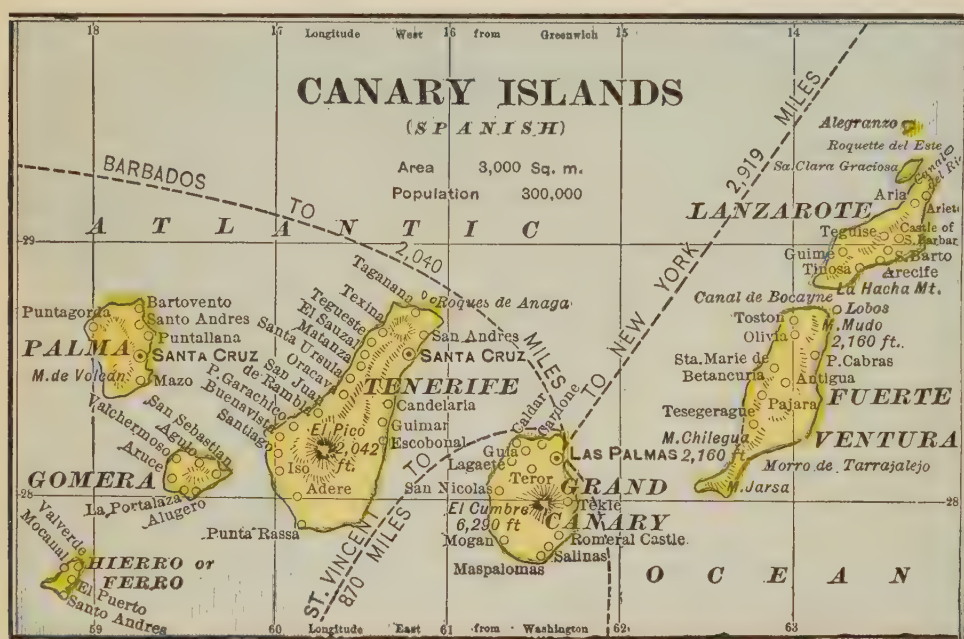
The Carolineans are a lively and wide-awake people. They acquire knowledge with facility, and many of them have long been acquainted with the English language, as spoken by the sailors who have been among them. They have a custom of recording remarkable events in songs, and as they assemble every evening to amuse themselves with dancing and singing, the children, while taking part in these innocent pleasures, learn the history of their country, and communicate it in their turn to succeeding generations.

THE CANARIES.

Among the very few outlying possessions of Spain are the Canary Islands, known to the ancients as the Fortunate Isles. They lie in the Atlantic Ocean, off the northwest coast of Africa, in lat. $27^{\circ} 40'$ to $29^{\circ} 25'$ N. and long. $13^{\circ} 25'$ to $18^{\circ} 16'$ W. forming a Spanish province. The group consists of seven large and several small islets, with a joint area of about 3,800 square miles, and a population of 300,000. The principal islands, proceeding from east to west, are Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Gomera, Palma and Hierro or

are numerous torrents but no rivers, and fresh water is very scarce in the southern parts of the islands, and especially in Hierro.

The researches of Humboldt and Von Buch led to the division of the botanical geography of Tenerife into five distinct regions. The first, or region of African forms of vegetation, extends to about 1,300 feet above the sea, and is marked by the growth of the date palm, sugar-cane, dragon's-blood tree, etc. The second region extends to the height of 2,800 feet, and produces vines, corn, maize, olives, chestnuts, etc., in luxuriance. This zone represents the vege-



Ferro. The coasts are steep and rocky, and the surface is diversified with lofty mountains (the greatest elevation being attained in the *Pico de Teyde*, in the island of Tenerife, which has a height of 12,182 feet), narrow gorges and fertile valleys. All the islands are of volcanic origin. On the summits of the highest elevations, depressions like those left by fallen cones of volcanoes are almost everywhere found, and the steep declivities are marked by deep fissures, of which, usually, only one penetrates the depressed summit, and exposes to view the several strata of the volcanic rock. There

tation of southern Europe. In the third region, rising 1,200 feet or so higher, we have laurels and evergreens. In the fourth, extending to above 6,000 feet, we find vegetation nipped by cold and excessive dryness, snow falling several months of the year, and only the *pinus Canariensis* and other coniferæ flourishing. The fifth region attains an elevation of nearly 11,000 feet. Here are found a kind of *spartium* (broom) peculiar to this zone, with cedrine junipers, and one Alpine plant, *Arabis Alpina*. The barren mountain-peaks are just below the limit of perpetual snow, although in a cav-

ern at the height of 11,000 feet above the sea snow is said to be preserved throughout the year. All the rest of the islands are similar in character, with the exception of Fuerteventura and Lanzarote, which are less elevated, more abundantly wooded and more luxuriant in vegetation generally.

Minerals are few, and of little importance. Near the sea, the general temperature ranges from 60°–66° F., in January, to 78°–87° F. in October. The rainy season lasts

and fruits. The chief foreign trade is with the United States, England and Hamburg. There is little manufacturing.

THE BALEARICS.

Spain's only island possessions in the Mediterranean are the famous Balearics, in the western part of that sea, lying to the south and east of Spain, between 38° 40', and 40° 5' N. lat., and between 1° and 5° E. long. Majorca is the largest island of the



from November to February; from April to October the weather is uniformly fine.

The islands, however, suffer much from the east and southeast winds, which, blowing over the hot deserts of Africa, burn up vegetation and generate disease. Very little wine is now produced, the grape disease having destroyed almost all the vines. Cactus plants, on which the cochineal insect feeds, now mainly occupy the desolated vineyards, and the value of cochineal exported in 1874 was £435,000, out of a total value for exports of £596,244. Other products are cereals, tobacco, potatoes, barilla, oil

group, having an area of 1,430 square miles. Its shape is that of a trapezoid, with the angles directed to the cardinal points; and its diagonal, from Cape Grozer in the west to Cape Pera in the east, is about sixty miles. On the northwest the coast is highly precipitous, but on the other sides it is low and sloping. On the northeast there are several considerable bays, of which the chief are those of Alcudia and Pollensa; while on the southwest is the still more important bay of Palma. No fewer than twelve ports or harbors are enumerated round the island, of which may be mentioned Andraix, Soller,

and Porto Colom. In the northwest Majorca is traversed by a chain of mountains running parallel with the coast, and attaining its highest elevation in Silla de Torillas, 4,600 feet above the sea. Towards the south and east the surface is comparatively level, though broken by isolated peaks of considerable height. The northern mountains afford great protection to the rest of the island from the violent gales to which it is exposed, and render the climate remarkably mild and pleasant, while the heats of summer are tempered by the sea breezes. The scenery of Majorca is varied and beautiful, with all the picturesqueness of outline that usually belongs to a limestone formation. Some of the valleys, such as those of Valdemoza and Soller, with their luxuriant vegetation, are delightful resorts. There are quarries of marble, of various grains and colors—those of Santagny, in the partido of Manacor, being especially celebrated, while lead, iron and cinnabar have also been obtained. Coal of a jet-like character is found at Benisalem, where works were commenced in 1836, at Selva, where it has been mined since 1851, near Santa Maria, and elsewhere. It is used in the industrial establishments of Palma and in the manufacture of lime, plaster and bricks, in the neighborhood of the mines,—a considerable quantity being also exported to Barcelona. The inhabitants are principally devoted to agriculture, and most of the arable land of the islands is under cultivation. The mountains are terraced, and the old pine woods have in many places given place to the olive, the vine, and the almond tree, to fields of wheat and flax, or to orchards of figs and oranges. For the last-mentioned fruits the valley of Soller is one of the most important districts, the produce being largely transmitted to France, and realizing about £25,000 per annum. The oil harvest is very considerable, and Inca is the center of the oil district. The wines are light but excellent, especially the Muscadel and Montona. The agricultural methods of the islands are still somewhat primitive, but the introduction of machin-

ery indicates improvement, as well as the drainage, by an English company, of a marsh and lake, 8,000 acres in extent, near the town of Alcudia. During the summer there is often great scarcity of water, but, according to a system handed down by the Moors, the rains of autumn and winter are collected in enormous reservoirs, which contain sufficient water to last through the dry season, and on the payment of a certain rate, each landholder in turn has his fields flooded at certain intervals. Mules are used in the agriculture and traffic of the island. The cattle are small, but the sheep are large and well fleeced. Pigs are largely reared, and exported to Barcelona. There is abundance of poultry and of small game. A good deal of brandy is made and exported. Excellent woolen and linen cloths are woven. The silkworm is reared and its produce manufactured, and canvas, rope and cord are largely made from both native and foreign materials. The average value of the imports of the island is £550,000, and the exports amount to rather more. The roads are excellent, the four principal being those from Alcudia, Manacor, Soller and Andraix to the capital. A railway is in course of construction from Palma by Inca to Alcudia, and the stock is all held by Mallorquins. A telegraphic line passes from Palma to Valencia, and there is regular steam communication with Barcelona and Alicante. A Majorcan bank has been established, and a credit association for the development of the resources of the island. The people are industrious and hospitable, and pique themselves on their loyalty and orthodoxy. They are often but poorly educated, and their superstition is great; crime, however, is rare. Vaccination is common throughout the island, except in the cities,—the women often performing the operation themselves when medical assistance cannot be got. Castilian is spoken by the upper and commercial classes; the lower and agricultural employ a dialect resembling that of the Catalans, with whom, also, their general appearance and manners connect them. Besides the towns already

mentioned, Lluchmayor and Campos are places of considerable size; and the castle of Belbez near Palma, which was the former residence of the kings is worthy of notice. Population of the island, 204,000.

Minorca, the second of the group in size, is situated twenty-seven miles east north-east of Majorca. It has an area of two hundred and sixty square miles, and extends about thirty-five miles in length. The coast is deeply indented, especially on the north, with numerous creeks and bays,—that of Port Mahon being one of the finest in the Mediterranean, if not the best of them all. The ports Addaya, Fornelle, Ciudadela and Nitja may also be mentioned. The surface of the island is uneven, flat in the south, and rising irregularly towards the center, where the mountain El Toro—probably so called from the Arabic *Tor*, a height, though the natives have a legend of a *toro* or bull—has an altitude of 5,250 feet. Owing to want of shelter from mountains, the climate is not so equable as that of Majorca, and the island is exposed in autumn and winter to the violence of the north winds. The soil of the island is of very unequal quality, that of the higher districts being light, fine and fertile, and producing regular harvests without much labor or cultivation, while that of the plains is chalky, scanty, and alike unfit for pasture and the plough. Some of the valleys have a good alluvial soil, and where the hills have been terraced they are cultivated to the summit. The wheat and barley raised in the island are sometimes sufficient for home consumption; there is rarely a surplus. The *Hedysarum coronarium*, or zulla, as it is called by the Spaniards, is largely cultivated for fodder. Wine, oil, potatoes, legumes, hemp and flax are produced in moderate quantities; fruit of all kinds, including melons, pomegranates, figs and almonds is abundant. The moniato, or sweet potato, is grown and exported to Algeria. The caper plant is common throughout the island, growing on ruined walls. Horned cattle, sheep, goats, etc., are reared, and the island abounds with small game.

Stone of various kinds is plentiful; a soft stone, easily quarried, and acquiring hardness by exposure, is used for building. In the district of Mercadal and in Mount Santa Agueda are found marbles and porphyries superior to those of Italy, and lime and slate are also abundant. Lead, copper and iron might be worked were it not for the scarcity of fuel. There are manufactures of the wool, hemp and flax of the island, and formerly there was a good deal of boat-building; but, with the exception of agriculture, all branches of industry are comparatively neglected. The principal exports are wheat, cattle, cotton-stuffs, and shoes. An excellent road, constructed in 1713-15 by Brigadier Kane, to whose memory a monument was erected at the first milestone, runs through the island from southeast to northwest, and connects Port Mahon with Ciudadela, passing by Alayor, Mercadal, and Ferrerias. Ciudadela, which was the capital of the island till Mahon was raised to that position by the English during their occupancy of the island, still possesses considerable remains of its former importance. Population of the island, 39,000.

Iviça, Iviza, or, in Spanish, Ibiza, the *Ebusus* of the ancients, lies fifty miles southwest of Majorca, and about sixty from Cape San Martin on the coast of Spain, between $38^{\circ}50'$ and $39^{\circ}8'$ N. lat., and between $1^{\circ}14'$ and $1^{\circ}38'$ E. long. Its greatest length from northeast to southwest is about twenty-five miles, and its greatest breadth about thirteen. The coast is indented by numerous small bays, the principal of which are those of San Antonio on the northwest, and of Iviza on the southeast coast. Of all the Balearic group, Iviza is the most varied in its scenery and the most fruitful. The hilly parts are richly wooded. It was on one of the summits called Campsey that one of the stations in the celebrated measurement of an arc of the meridian was placed. The climate is for the most part mild and agreeable, though the hot winds from the African coast are sometimes troublesome. Oil, corn and fruits (of which the most impor-

tant are the common fig, the prickly pear, the almond and the carob-bean) are the principal productions of the island; but the inhabitants are rather indolent, and their modes of culture are very primitive. Hemp and flax are also grown. There are numerous salt-pans along the coast, which were formerly worked by the Spanish Government, but are now in the hands of a joint-stock company. Carob-beans, almonds, charcoal and lead are the other articles of export, to which may be added stockings of native manufacture. The imports are rice, flour and sugar, woolen goods and cotton. The capital of the island, and, indeed, the only town of much importance—for the population is remarkably scattered—is Iviza or La Ciudad, a fortified town on the southeast coast, consisting of a lower and upper portion, and possessing a good harbor. The population of the island is about 21,000, of whom 5,500 are resident in the capital.

South of Iviza lies the smaller and more irregular island of Formentera, which is said to derive its name from the production of wheat. It is situated between $1^{\circ} 22'$ and $1^{\circ} 37'$ E. long. With Iviza it agrees both in general appearance and in the character of its productions, but it is altogether destitute of streams. Goats and sheep are found in the mountains, and the coasts are greatly frequented by flamingoes. The last station in the measurement of the arc of the meridian was in this island.

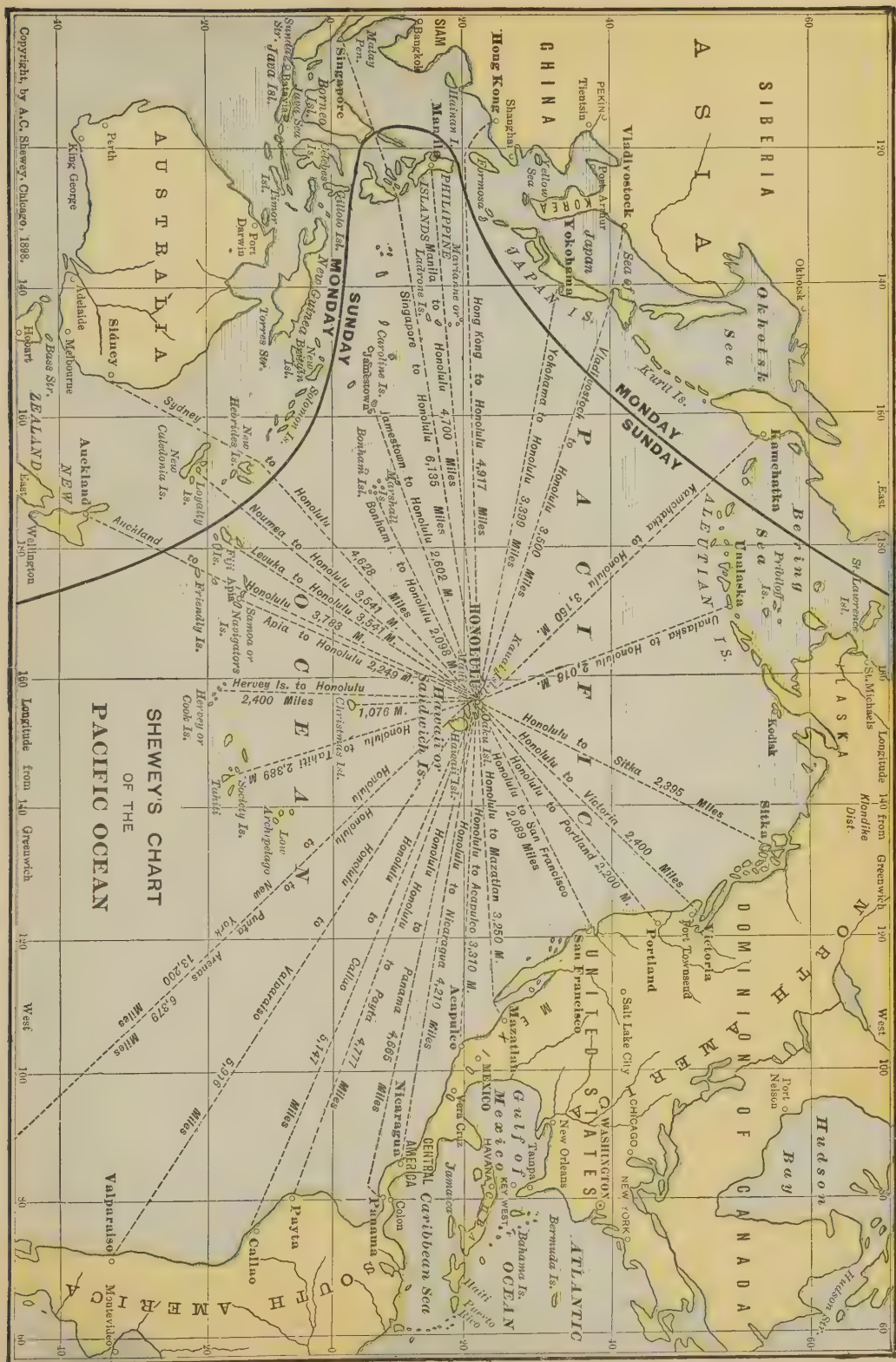
There are several smaller islands in the Balearic group, such as Cabrera, or Goat Island, and Conejera, or Rabbit Island, south of Majorca, but none of them are of any size or importance except Cabrera, which is full of caverns, and is used as a place of banishment. In 1808 it was the scene of a deed of gross barbarity—a large number of Frenchmen being landed on the island, and almost allowed to perish for want of food.

HAWAII.

The Hawaiian Islands never belonged to Spain, although they were included within

the "New World" that the papal mandate assigned to that power for its possession. They came into possession of the United States by peaceful cession. Yet that act was consummated during the stress of the war with Spain, and so some mention of the new colony will be appropriate at this place. These islands, also called the Sandwich Islands, lie perfectly isolated in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, in latitude from $18^{\circ} 50'$ to $22^{\circ} 20'$ north of the equator, while their longitude is from 154° to 160° west from Greenwich. Thus they are almost equidistant from China and Japan on the one hand, from California and Mexico on the other; and they are the most northerly, as they are the only important island cluster of the Polynesian Archipelago. They are thirteen in number, eight being of considerable size, and the rest but insignificant islets, namely, Hawaii, Maui, Oahu, Kawai, Molokai, Lanai, Nūhau, and Kahoolawe. All are inhabited, except Kahoolawe, which was abandoned a few years ago.

The advantages enjoyed by these islands as regards position must be plainly evident. Were they nothing but a set of barren rocks they would still assume an importance, lying as they do in the very pathway of trade between the United States and Australasia and the great empires of China and Japan. The completion of the Canadian trans-continental railway has revealed to them a fresh vista of prosperity. Were the Isthmus of Panama opened up, or better again the Nicaragua Canal, and were the proposed American cable, or a British one, to the colonies laid, which is to touch at Honolulu, there can be no doubt they would increase the opportunities and inestimable value of Hawaii to the trading nations at large. When, in addition to this, to say that for exceeding beauty and grandeur of scenery, for fertility of soil and salubrity and equity of climate, it is a very Paradise upon earth, is but to state the simple truth, it will be seen that the possibilities in the future of this little kingdom are almost illimitable. The setting of the gem is grand, but the intrinsic value of the jewel is beyond compare.



Had its situation as regards commerce been nil, its own wondrous gifts alone must assuredly have secured for it a sufficiency of admiration and regard. We need say nothing of its situation from the strategic point of view, though this points it out as the future "Gibraltar of the Pacific."

Oahu, as seen from some distance out to sea, is barren, rugged, almost repulsive in its desolation, totally at variance with what we usually associate with the word tropical, and with the verdant loveliness of the South

streams and cascades. To the right stands the picturesque promontory of Diamond Head, an ancient hoary crater; to the left the Punchbowl, another extinct volcano, gleams fiery red in the setting sun. In the immediate foreground is the coral barrier reef, which girds nearly all the Hawaiian Islands, against which the white surf forever chafes and foams with perpetual thunder. Through this we pass, by a narrow channel, into the quiet, blue waters of the snug little harbor; and then, but not



Sea Isles. Bare, verdureless cliffs, of volcanic origin, sun-scorched and weather-beaten, rise abruptly from the lonely ocean to the height of 4,000 feet; but, as we approach closer and closer, and round the southeastern portion of the island, we find we must considerably modify our first impressions. The mountains which form the background to the scene now opened out are bleak and uninviting enough, but on every hand they are broken by narrow valleys and ravines, clothed with a profusion of vegetation and fertilized by running

till then, beautiful Honolulu fully reveals itself, nestling at the foot of the Punchbowl, on the seaward margin of a large grassy plain, about ten miles long by two broad, which stretches away to the hills beyond—nestling and almost hidden among feathery cocoa-palms, banana, breadfruit, mango, hibiscus, algaroba and other trees and shrubs of the luxuriant tropics.

Honolulu is a quaint, charming little spot. Being the capital of the kingdom, it is at once the seat of government, the headquarters of all trade and traffic, and

the principal place of residence of the sovereign. Two long streets lead inland from the wharf, and in these are the shops or stores. Honolulu is lighted with electricity, the only public illuminating power, and numerous telephones are in general use. Tramcars run through the streets, and railways out into the country. The stores are kept by people of all nationalities, but chiefly by Americans, English and Chinamen. In appearance, they lean to native tastes; but the natives themselves have not much aptitude for mercantile affairs, and, indeed, the majority exhibit a profound indifference to the splendid science of money-making generally. Riches excite in them no craving, and thus gain is no incentive to toil. Near the harbor are the Customhouse and the Aliiolani Hale (Government Building).

All travelers agree as to the exquisite loveliness of the homes of Honolulu. Side by side stand the villas and cottages of the foreign residents and the less pretentious but neat homes of the natives. The former are invariably detached, and literally embowered in beautiful gardens. Some are frame houses, some built of blocks of coral conglomerate, and others of stone or of baked bricks. They are mostly two-storied, though a few straggle over the ground without any upper rooms at all, and all are alike in the possession of wide, deep verandas, in which the inmates lead an open-air life. Beautiful passion flowers, gorgeous magenta bougainvilleas, venustas, with their orange waxy flowers, clematis, and many more, trail and hang over verandas and walls. Let the imagination surround such a house with lawns of brightest green, with masses of gardenia, allamandas, oleanders, with roses, lilies, geraniums, heliotropes, red and yellow hibiscus, and other flowering plants and shrubs, shadow them by densest leafage of umbrella trees, date and cocoapalms, bananas, bamboos, breadfruits, the glossy-leaved india rubber, the delicate tamarind and algaroba, and one has some faint conception of the lavish beauty of a Hawaiian home. Not a single chimney exists

to mar the sweet pure air. Yet all this tropical and varied luxuriance is by no means of spontaneous growth. But little more than seventy years ago, when the first missionaries landed on the site of the present city of Honolulu, it was a dreary, barren, volcanic waste. They, however, at once set about importing and planting trees and shrubs, and, aided by incessant artificial irrigation, the result is the lovely oasis of to-day. A great impetus to acclimatization was given by Dr. Hillebrand, an enthusiastic botanist, who came to reside in Honolulu about thirty years ago, and by Baron Ferdinand von Muller, of the Melbourne Botanical Gardens, who has supplied Australasian seeds and plants in immense numbers to the Hawaiian Government during the last twenty-five years.

Never was there a more gay, merry, laughter-loving people than the Hawaiians. Care seems unknown to them, work and worry a myth, and the long, sunny days of their summer year are spent in endless amusement and pleasure. The women, especially, present a striking contrast to the same class at home and in the colonies. That weary, worn, down-trodden, passionate, or else hardened look, habitual to the faces of the poor in all our large cities, and so sad to see, is entirely absent in Hawaii. In a country where the duties of the home ties, especially as regards children, are mutually shared by father and mother—where food is plentiful and easily obtained, and requires little preparation—where fires have not to be kept up—and where but little covering is needed, and where the climate permits of an open-air existence, need we wonder that the natives dwell as in an Arcadia? They are a handsome, stalwart race, the women well formed, with exquisitely moulded little hands and feet, long, black wavy hair, a rich brown skin, large, lustrous brown eyes, and teeth like ivory. Their dress, somewhat resembling a "Mother Hubbard," consists of a sleeved calico gown, which falls to the feet in voluminous folds from the shoulders, where it is confined in a plain yoke. It is called the

holuku. The men, except in very secluded districts, have discarded the ancient *malo*, or girdle round the loins, and appear in some sort of foreign dress, often white trousers and gay shirts. Both usually wear small straw hats, and are frequently decorated, round head and throat, with *leis*, *i. e.*, garlands of flowers, many-colored seashells, or feathers. With all their light-heartedness the Hawaiians are sarcastic, and dearly love to mimic and quiz the *haoles*, and nickname them upon some personal peculiarity. Both sexes are passionately fond of riding, and ride boldly and well—oddly enough, since a horse was unknown in the islands previous to 1803. The picturesque riding-dress of the ladies is a strip of colored cotton—crimson, purple, orange, or yellow—wound round the body so as to form a kind of loose wrapper, with ends floating on the breeze. Unfortunately, these skirts are going out of use, and are seldom seen, except rarely on festal occasions. They use the Mexican saddle, high-peaked at the back, with a lasso-horn in front, and bosses of polished brass or silver, immense wooden stirrups with great leathern flaps to protect the foot when riding through brushwood, and brilliant saddle-cloths. They sit astride, and as Kanaka ladies are now proud of being *bien chaussée*, only the very poor ride barefooted. They dash along at full gallop—a bright, exciting kaleidoscope of color. They are a preëminently hospitable people, friendly to and keenly observant of the foreigner, and ambitious to imitate his manners, habits, dress, and luxuries. In curious contrast to their extreme indolence are their great strength and courage, and their spasmodic capability for violent action. Probably the general indolence, thriftlessness, and shiftlessness are engendered by the climate and old habits of life under the ancient Aliis or chiefs, and are not ingrained in the nature of the people.

Unhappily it has long been feared that the natives are fading away, though half-whites increasing—only another instance of that apparently inevitable law by which the colored race disappears on the white

man's path. When Captain Cook discovered Hawaii in 1778, he estimated the population at 1,200,000 people, an exaggeration, doubtless, however unintentional on his part. We may fairly reduce his estimate by one-fourth. In 1832, when the first official census was taken, it was 130,313; in 1860 it had dwindled to 69,800; in 1872 to 56,897; in 1878 it was 57,985; in 1884 it was 80,578; and in 1890 about 90,000.

The islands are all high and mountainous, rising to a height of 4,000 feet on Oahu, to 10,000 on Maui, and 14,000 feet and perpetual snow on the island of Hawaii. The whole country is volcanic in origin, there being hundreds of extinct and two active volcanoes. Each island consists of one or more mountains seamed with valleys and gorges, with rolling plains lying between the mountains, and generally fringed with a comparatively level belt along the seashore. Some portions of the coast are protected by reefs of coral, while others are sheer precipices rising out of blue water to a height of thousands of feet.

The soil, consisting of decomposed lava, is fertile, but has to be irrigated in many places, the water coming from mountain streams, artesian and surface wells. Some of the largest steam pumps in the world are used, raising water to an elevation of four hundred feet. Fertilizers are used in large quantities, thousands of tons per annum being used on the sugar plantations.

The climate is mild and even, being of an average weekly maximum of 74 in winter and 82 in summer. There are no extremes of heat or cold. The lowest temperature at sea level in winter is about 56° and the hottest in the summer, about 88°. A temperature of 90° in the shade is almost unknown. At higher elevations above the sea almost any desired temperature can be found. On two mountains there is perpetual snow. The cool northeast trade winds blow for nine months of the year. Except when the south winds blow, the humidity of the air is low. The country at all elevations, and throughout the year, is healthy, the death rate among whites being

exceptionally small. None of the fevers and other typical diseases of tropical countries are found there, and the diseases of the temperate zone are usually of a mild character. The climate is so balmy and natural conditions so delightful that, by common acceptance, Hawaii is known as "The Paradise of the Pacific." Although spoken of as a "tropical country," it is barely on the edge of the tropics, and the same Arctic current that cools San Francisco gives Hawaii a climate many degrees cooler than in the same latitude in the Atlantic. It is a climate well suited to the physical and mental development of the Anglo-Saxon.

The principal products are sugar, rice, coffee, bananas, pine-apples, guavas and other tropical fruits, many of which grow wild. The area cultivated with sugar-cane is approximately 80,000 acres. The export of sugar in 1896 amounted to 221,000 tons. The output of sugar cannot be much increased, as most of the sugar lands are already occupied. The cultivation of coffee is rapidly increasing. It will soon rival sugar in amount and value, as there are large areas of rich but yet uncultivated land not available for sugar, but peculiarly adapted to coffee. This product is the hope of the country, as it can be produced profitably by farmers with small capital. The principal supply of bananas and pine-apples

consumed on the Pacific coast is from Hawaii. It is a growing trade.

The rainfall varies greatly, ranging from fifty inches in some districts to one hundred and seventy-five inches in others. Irrigation supplements the rainfall in the drier section. Two-thirds of the sugar is produced by irrigation.

The census of 1896 shows the population to be 109,020.

In round numbers the different nationalities are represented as follows:—

Native Hawaiians.....	31,000
Japanese.....	24,400
Portuguese.....	15,100
Chinese.....	21,600
Part Hawaiian and part foreign blood...	8,400
Americans.....	3,000
British.....	2,200
German.....	1,400
Norwegian and French.....	479
All other nationalities.....	1,955

The United States since the reciprocity treaty of 1876 has had a large share of the commerce of these islands. Prior to 1876 the annual sales of the United States to the Hawaiian Islands had never, save in two exceptional cases, reached \$1,000,000. With 1877, however, the \$1,000,000 line was permanently passed, and since that date American exports to the islands have steadily grown, passing the \$2,000,000 line in 1879, exceeding \$3,000,000 in 1883; \$4,000,000 in 1890, and passing the \$5,000,000 line in 1891. In 1897 the total trade with the United States, imports and exports, amounted to more than \$18,000,000.

SECTION IX.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.

DURING the nineteenth century more has been done for the elevation of the human race and for the cause of civilization than in all other centuries combined. It has been a period of liberal political ideas, democratic and revolutionary, and social and political improvement of the masses. It has been an age of progress in education, discovery and invention.

During the nineteenth century governments have become more liberal throughout the civilized world. The cause of democracy has taken rapid strides. Every country of Europe at the present time—with the exception of Russia and Turkey—has a constitution and a legislative assembly in which the people are represented. Modern constitutional liberty—the product of the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxon race—after fully developing itself in England and North America, has spread over the continent of Europe. The shot fired at Lexington, April 19, 1775—"the shot that went round the world"—produced lasting results. A model republic was established in North America; the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars broke down the remains of mediæval feudalism in Europe; and the constitutional struggles of the nineteenth century sounded the death-knell of European absolutism. Among the grand strides which liberty has made during the nineteenth century may be mentioned the gradual enfranchisement of the masses in Great Britain, France and other European countries; the establishment of the French Republic; the liberalizing of Austria-Hungary—that former bulwark of European despotism; the emancipation of the masses in Spain, Italy, Prussia, Germany and other European countries; the emancipation of the Spanish-American countries; the eman-

cipation and enfranchisement of the colored population of the United States; the suppression of the African slave-trade by the energetic action of Great Britain; and the long-desired unification of Italy and Germany.

Important inventions have contributed to man's happiness and comfort. Steam and electricity have been wonderful factors in modern civilization. Steam has been applied to innumerable uses. Steamboats ply the rivers, and steamships have taken the place of the old sailing vessels, while railroads have been instrumental in developing human progress. Steam vessels and steam railway cars have made travel easy and rapid. In 1830 there were two hundred and six miles of railway; in 1881 there were two hundred and twenty-five thousand miles. The electro-magnetic telegraph, first used in 1844 between Baltimore and Washington, has come into general use, so that in 1881 there were almost five hundred thousand miles of telegraph line in the world. The first Atlantic cable was laid successfully in 1866, and now there are ocean-cables in different parts of the world. Printing presses have been brought to a great degree of perfection. The sewing machine—first patented by Elias Howe, of Massachusetts, in 1846—has come into general use. The process of vulcanizing India-rubber was invented by Charles Goodyear, of Connecticut. The chemical action of light has been turned to account in the process of daguerreotyping, and likewise in photographing. There have been numerous minor inventions. Wonderful advances have been made in the art of war. The large siege-guns and batteries which have been invented are capable of reducing city walls and fortresses of the greatest strength; while iron-clad war-vessels and gun-boats have

taken the place of the old "wooden walls," and completely revolutionized the methods of modern naval warfare. Lieutenant Zaslinski, of the United States army, has recently invented the pneumatic gun, capable of throwing nitro-glycerine shells of several hundred weight over a mile's distance with the most destructive effects, and intended mainly for coast and harbor defense.

Popular education has made rapid strides during the nineteenth century. The clothing of the masses with political power in America and Europe has been the means of establishing public schools for the diffusion of intellectual enlightenment. In the United States education is very general among the masses, while in Prussia and other German states a compulsory school system has for some time prevailed. The enfranchisement of the masses in Great Britain, France and other European countries has led to the establishment of compulsory systems of education in those countries. The newspaper press has been a wonderful educator of the masses during the nineteenth century. In Great Britain and the United States the press is free; while in most countries of Europe newspapers are more or less under government censorship, and their liberty is somewhat restricted.

Commercial and diplomatic intercourse has also been greatly extended during the nineteenth century. The occupation of portions of Africa, Asia and Oceanica by European nations has been productive of great good to humanity, and has extended European civilization to every quarter of the globe. The occupation of Australia, South Africa, India, New Zealand, Borneo and various small islands in Oceanica by Great Britain has been a blessing to the cause of civilization, because it has tended to diffuse the language, institutions, and love of liberty of the Anglo-Saxon race. India, under British rule, has been vastly benefited. Railroads and telegraphs cross the country in every direction; the system of castes, and ancient superstitions and shocking religious customs, are rapidly giving way to more enlightened usages; and

the despotism of the native princes has abated. The empires of China and Japan—the seats of the oldest civilizations yet existing—have lately been opened to intercourse with the Western nations. England's opium war with China and the consequent Treaty of Nankin, and the commercial treaty between the United States and Japan in 1854, have contributed wonderfully toward opening the extreme East to the trade and the civilizing influences of Europe and America. The Suez Canal—projected by Ferdinand de Lesseps, and completed in 1867—has shortened the route to India.

The rude island of Britain, which at Cæsar's invasion two thousand years ago was inhabited by savages, is now the ruling center of the grandest empire which has ever existed—an empire scattered over every portion of the globe, and on which the sun never sets. The three kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland, together with the principality of Wales, embrace about thirty-five million inhabitants; and London, the capital and metropolis of the British Empire, contains a population of five millions. The entire United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with the various British possessions in Europe, Asia, Africa, America and Oceanica—the whole forming the British Empire—contains over three hundred million inhabitants, a greater number than those of any other empire, excepting China, which has one-fourth of the population of the globe within its limits. Great Britain exercises a commanding influence upon the destinies of the world, and has done more for the spread of liberty, civilization and Christianity than all other nations combined. The Anglo-Saxon race is superior to all other races, being especially noted for its enterprise and love of liberty; and the two great Anglo-Saxon nations of the world—Great Britain and the United States—are the leaders of modern civilization. The English language is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language, and its literature is more extensive than that of any other tongue. Great Britain is the leading commercial, maritime,

manufacturing and colonial power of the world; her commerce extending to every clime, her fleets ruling the seas, her colonies being found in every quarter of the globe, and her manufactures being so various and extensive that she is called "The Workshop of the World." Our own Webster has spoken of the British Empire as a power that "has dotted the surface of the globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat, following the sun, and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth daily, with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England."

The English race is the strongest and most vigorous, mentally and physically, that has ever existed. England is not only our mother country in race and language, but also of our free institutions. By her teachings and by her example, she has been the great educator of nations in the principles of civil and political liberty. All European nations have within the last century modeled their governments after that of England, which, by the "Glorious Revolution of 1688," has for the last two centuries had a settled character as a free, constitutional government. The English language during the last century has rapidly spread, both among civilized and half-civilized races; and two-thirds of the newspaper circulation of the world—that great vehicle of modern intelligence—is now in that language.

Although a great part of our American population is from various other European nationalities, the great bulk of our people are the descendants of the English race first planted on our soil two centuries ago. Although an obvious patriotism requires Americans to inform themselves of the history of their own country first, we cannot understand ourselves, our civil, political and social institutions, our civilization or our language, without a knowledge of the great country from which we drew our own national existence—"Old Mother England." Our free institutions, which we so dearly prize—freedom of speech, freedom of the press, religious

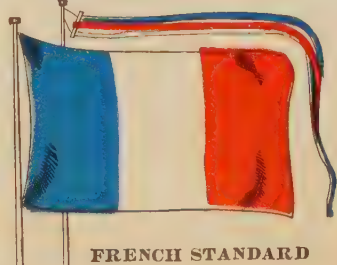
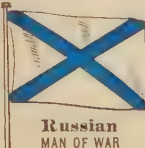
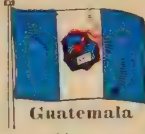
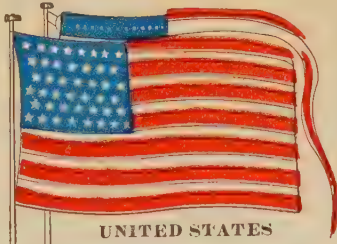
liberty, trial by jury, habeas corpus, bills of rights, equality before the law—are all of English origin, and were won during centuries of struggles by our English ancestors descended from the hardy Angles and Saxons who fourteen centuries ago left their homes in the German Fatherland and planted themselves on British soil to work out a glorious destiny for themselves, for their posterity and for all mankind.

The very thing which is often condemned—England's greed and grasping ambition—has been the means, within the last two centuries, the period that her constitution has assumed a settled shape, of extending English civilization to every part of the globe. In India—that land so rich in the bounties of nature, but so long oppressed by caste and superstition—English rule has been an inestimable blessing to the native population. No longer are Hindoo widows burned upon the funeral pile at the deaths of their husbands. No longer are Hindoo mothers permitted to throw their innocent babes into the Ganges as a religious sacrifice. No longer are religious devotees allowed to cast themselves beneath the wheels of the car of Juggernaut. All these horrible religious customs have given away before the march of English civilization. So it has been in every savage and barbarous quarter of the globe where the British flag has been planted.

Germany's great Chancellor a few years ago declared in the imperial legislature of the Fatherland that "England is centuries ahead of Germany in civilization." Equally as complimentary as these words of Prince Bismarck in the German Reichstag were the words of a prominent Austrian newspaper—the Vienna *Tagblatt*—which several years ago declared that "the last days of England's power would be the end of European liberty." No intelligent well-wisher of mankind would desire the substitution of any other supremacy for British supremacy throughout the world, as British ascendancy and the interests of modern civilization and the development of constitutional liberty are inseparable.

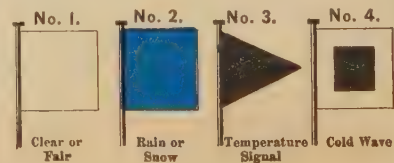
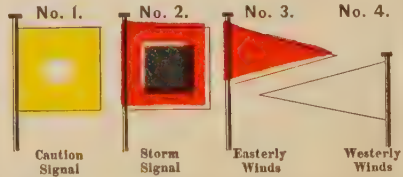
The English government is in many re-

NATIONAL



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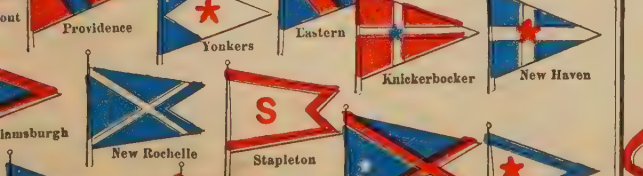
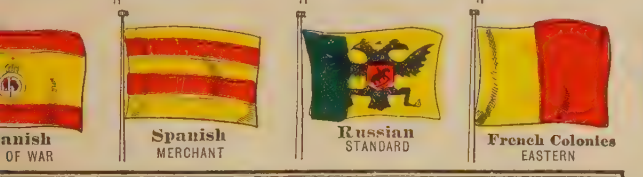
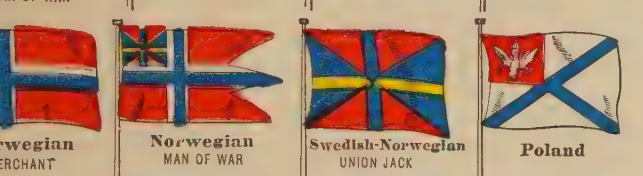
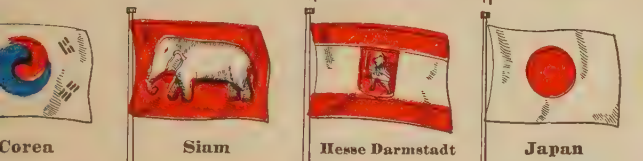
Wind Direction & Velocity Signals



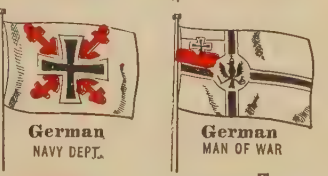
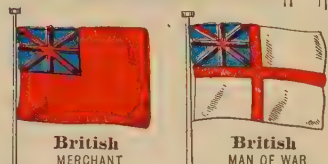
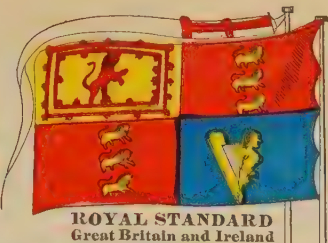
WEATHER SIGNALS.



ALS.



FLAGS.



spects the most directly democratic that has ever existed, as the policy of the government must always be in accord with public sentiment. The English people, through the House of Commons, are the real rulers. The sovereign is a mere figure-head. The aristocracy, as represented by the House of Lords, though immensely wealthy, virtually possess no political power, as they must always give way before the House of Commons and popular sentiment. The Church of England, though a venerable institution, is also subordinate to the will of the nation.

The progress of science and the useful arts during the Victorian Age has been unexampled. Railroads cross the kingdom in every direction. Steam vessels traverse every sea. The electric telegraph has established instant communication between every part of the civilized world. The steam printing-press has facilitated the spread of intelligence, and increased the number of journals and periodicals of all classes circulated among the people.

Great geographical explorations in the Arctic regions were made during the nineteenth century by the English navigators, Ross, Parry, Sir John Franklin and McClure (the last of whom discovered a useless North-west passage in 1852); and by the Americans, De Haven, Kane, Hayes, Hall, De Long and Greely. Since 1819 discoveries have been made in the Antarctic regions by English, French and American navigators; and Captain Ross, of the British navy, discovered a narrow strip of land in 1841, and named it *Victoria Land*; while Captain Wilkes, of the United States navy, discovered a narrow strip of land, seventeen hundred miles long, and named it the *Antarctic Continent*. The interior of Africa was explored by the Englishmen, Mungo Park and Sir Samuel Baker; the Frenchman, Du Chailu; the Scotchman, Dr. David Livingstone; and the American, Henry M. Stanley. In Western Africa the British colony of Sierra Leone was founded in 1787 by English philanthropists, as a refuge for liberated slaves; and in 1821 the American Colonization Society founded the free negro Republic of Li-

beria, as a refuge for emancipated and refugee slaves, and for the civilization of Africa.

Science has been making rapid strides during the nineteenth century. Diligent scholars have been pursuing their researches into every branch with the most encouraging results. Bonaparte's conquest of Egypt in 1798 was a great benefit to modern civilization; and since that period learned European Egyptologists, like the Frenchman Champollion and others, have brought to light many hitherto-unknown facts in ancient Egyptian history, by deciphering the hieroglyphics on the monumental ruins of Egypt. The excavation of ancient ruins in Asia Minor, and in the regions of the Euphrates and the Tigris, by the Englishmen Layard, Rawlinson and others, have given us new light on the ancient world—especially Chaldæa, Assyria and Babylon. Philology has been advanced by the German scholars, Grimm brothers, Bopp and Schlegel, and Professor Max Müller of Oxford, England. Lord Rayleigh discovered argon, a constituent of air, in 1895, and Professor Roentgen of Germany discovered the X ray, in 1896.

ROBERT FULTON (1765-1815)—an American, born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania—invented the steamboat; the first successful voyage being made on the Hudson in 1807.

SIR MARK ISAMBARD BRUNEL (1769-1849)—a celebrated English engineer—projected the *Thames tunnel*; begun in 1826 and finished in 1843.

GEORGE STEPHENSON (1781-1848)—an English engineer—invented the *locomotive engine* in 1814. DAGUERRE (1789-1851)—a Frenchman—invented the *daguerreotype*.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE (1791-1871)—an American, born in Massachusetts—invented the *electro-magnetic telegraph*; the first public use of which was made between Washington and Baltimore in 1844, in dispatching an account of the proceedings of the convention which nominated James K. Polk for the Presidency of the United States.

CYRUS W. FIELD (1819-1892), of New York, projected the *Atlantic Cable*, which

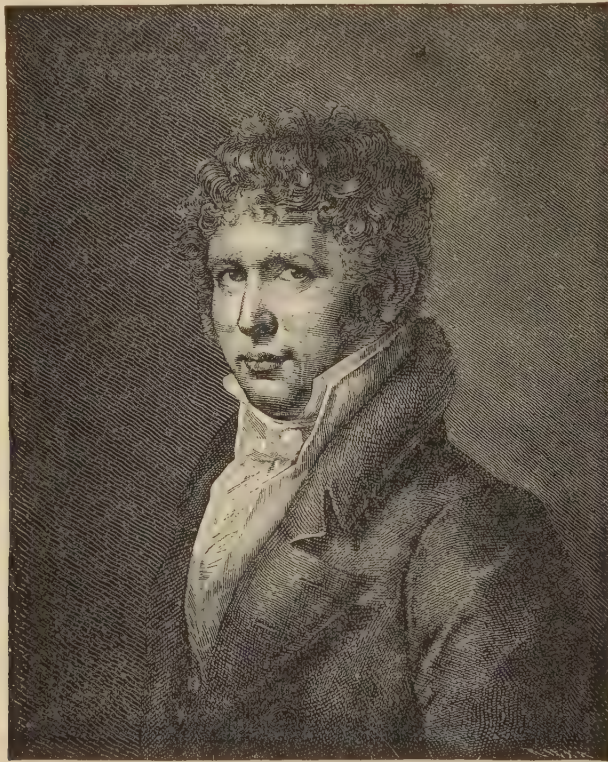
was successfully laid in the summer of 1866.

ELIAS HOWE (1819-1867)—a native of Massachusetts—invented the *sewing machine*, for which he obtained a patent in 1846.

THOMAS A. EDISON (born 1847)—an American—is famous for his numerous inventions of electrical instruments, and for his discoveries and experiments in *electric light*. Edison is one of the inventors of the telephone. Another of his inventions is the phonograph, or speaking machine.

CUVIER (1769-1832)—a Swiss, but who lived most of his life in Paris—was a renowned naturalist, whose chief works are *The Animal Kingdom* and *Discourses on the Revolutions of the Surface of the Globe*. He was Minister of Education under Napoleon I.

LOUIS J. R. AGASSIZ (1807-1873)—a Swiss by birth, but who spent the last twenty-five years of his life in the United States—was an eminent naturalist, and author of *Poissons Fossiles*, *Contributions to the Natu-*



BARON ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT.

CAPTAIN JOHN ERICSSON (1803-1889)—a Swedish-American—invented the *propeller* for steam war-vessels, and also the iron-clad *Monitor*. The first combat between iron-clad vessels was between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, in the American civil war.

ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT (1769-1859)—the greatest of German naturalists—traveled over both continents, and in his *Kosmos* gave an account of the physical phenomena of the universe.

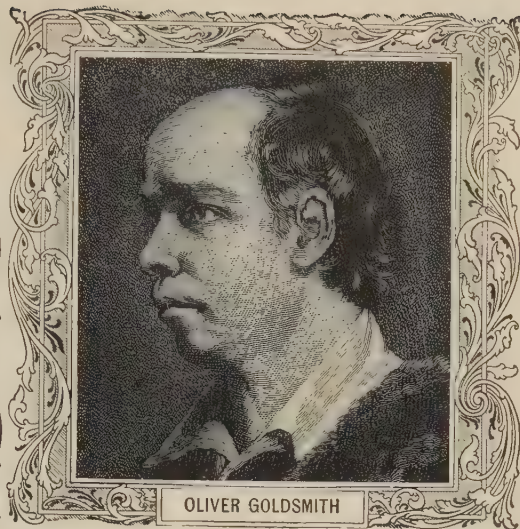
ral History of the United States, and *Methods of Study in Natural History*.

HAECKEL (born 1834) ranks as a great German naturalist and evolutionist.

CHARLES DARWIN (1809-1882)—a renowned English naturalist and the leading advocate of the "Darwinian theory," or the theory of evolution—wrote *The Origin of Species*, *The Descent of Man*, *Variations of Animals and Plants*, *Expressions in Man and Animals*, and other works. His grand-



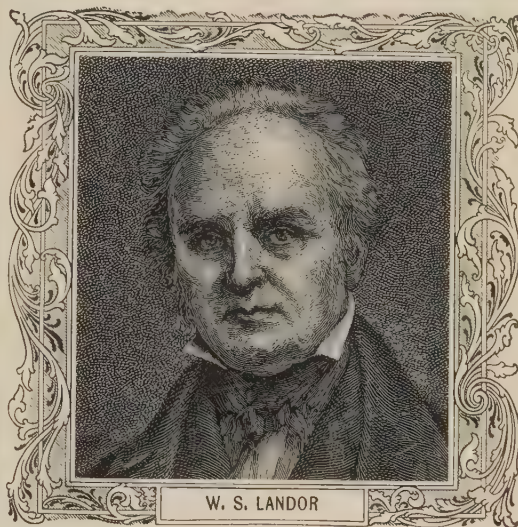
JOS. ADDISON



OLIVER GOLDSMITH



DANIEL DE FOE



W. S. LANDOR

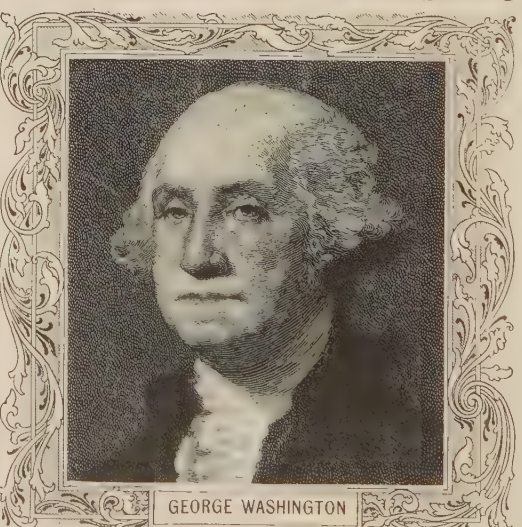
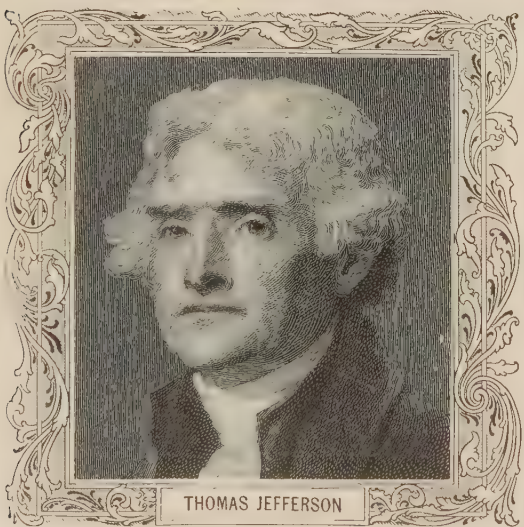
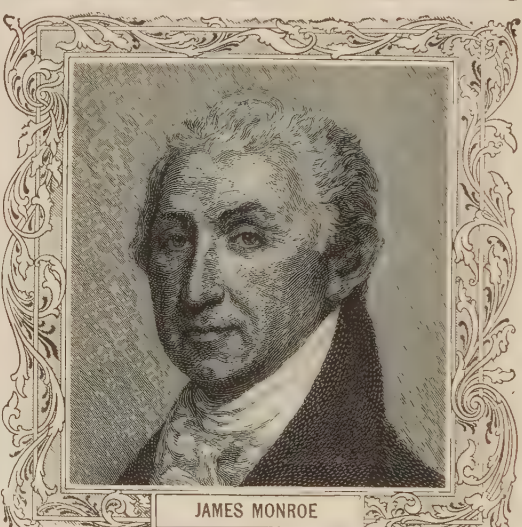
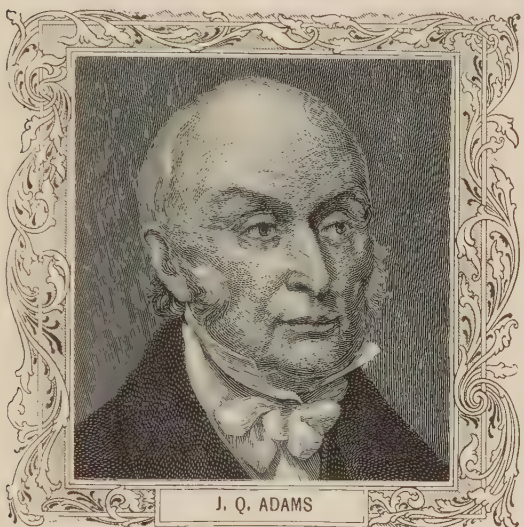
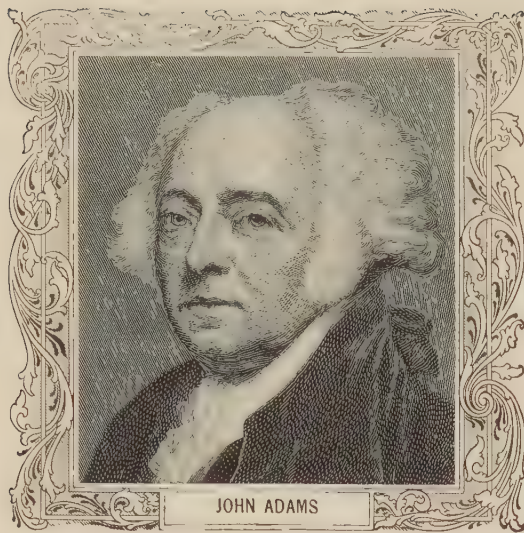


THOS. DE QUINCEY



RICHARD STEELE

DISTINGUISHED ENGLISH AUTHORS.



THE EARLIEST PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

father, Erasmus Darwin, was a naturalist.

THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY (1825-1895)—a great English naturalist—wrote *Man's Place in Nature*, *Comparative Anatomy*, *Protoplasm*, *Lay Sermons*, and other works.

SIR HUMPHRY DAVY (1778-1829)—a celebrated English chemist and natural philosopher—discovered many scientific facts and principles, and invented the safety-lamp for miners.

SIR DAVID BREWSTER (1781-1868)—an illustrious Scotch scientist, and editor of the *Edinburgh Encyclopedia*—was celebrated for his discoveries in optics, and wrote *Letters on Natural Magic*, *Life of Newton*, *Life of Kepler*, *Life of Galileo*, etc.

MICHAEL FARADAY (1791-1869)—an eminent English chemist and natural philosopher—made many important discoveries in magnetic electricity and light, and was a famous lecturer on scientific subjects.

JOHN TYNDALL (1820-1893)—a great English natural philosopher and lecturer on scientific subjects—wrote *Heat Considered as a Mode of Motion*, *Glaciers of the Alps*, *On Sound*, and other noted scientific works.

OERSTED (1777-1851)—a Dane—discovered the identity of magnetism and electricity.

LIEBIG (1803-1873)—a great German chemist and professor at Munich—wrote considerably on the chemistry of agriculture and physiology.

HUGH MILLER (1802-1856)—a renowned Scotch geologist—wrote *Old Red Sandstone*, *Footprints of the Creator*, *Testimony of the Rocks*, *My Schools and Schoolmasters*, etc.

SIR CHARLES LYELL (1797-1875)—an eminent Scotch geologist—wrote *Elements of Geology*, *Antiquity of Man*, *Travels in North America*, etc.

ARAGO (1786-1852)—French astronomer.

LEVERRIER (1811-1877)—a distinguished French astronomer—aided in discovering the planet Neptune in 1846.

LOUIS PASTEUR (1822-1895)—French bacteriologist—discovered remedies for hydrophobia, etc.

ORMSBY MACKNIGHT MITCHEL (1810-1862)—was a famous American astronomer,

and a general on the National side in the Civil War.

RICHARD ANTHONY PROCTOR (1837-1888) ranked as a great English astronomer.

DR. SAMUEL HAHNEMANN (1755-1843)—a German physician—originated homeopathy.

DR. FRANZ JOSEF GALL (1758-1828) and DR. JOHANN GASPAR SPURZHEIM (1776-1832)—German physicians—founded phrenology.

HEGEL (1770-1831)—a German, founder of a new school of philosophy.

FICHTE (1762-1814)—German philosopher, was the ideal pantheist.

SCHELLING (1775-1854) was the last of the four great German philosophers—Kant, Hegel, Fichte, Schelling.

SCHLEIERMACHER (1768-1834)—a German divine and philosopher—was a pantheist.

SCHOPENHAUER (1788-1860)—a German pessimistic philosopher, was called the "European Buddhist."

FEUERBACH (1804-1872) was a German metaphysician.

STRAUSS (1808-1874) was a German philosopher and Rationalist divine.

HARTMANN (born 1840) is a noted German philosopher.

COMTE (1798-1857)—a renowned French philosopher—was the author of *Positive Philosophy*.

COUSIN (1792-1867) was a famous French metaphysician and philosopher.

DUGALD STEWART (1753-1828)—a great Scotch mental and moral philosopher—was Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.

SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON (1788-1856)—a great Scotch metaphysician and logician, and Professor in the University of Edinburgh—wrote works on mental philosophy and logic.

THOMAS ROBERT MALTHUS (1766-1834)—an English political economist, who maintained that wars, famines and pestilence are necessary to prevent population from increasing too rapidly.

DAVID RICARDO (1772-1823)—a London banker and a political economist, was distin-

guished mainly for his writings on financial subjects and for his advocacy of the gold standard.

JAMES MILL (1795-1843)—English political economist.

JEREMY BENTHAM (1747-1832)—a great English political philosopher and judicial reformer—wrote *Utilitarianism* and many works on political reform.

JOHN STUART MILL (1806-1873)—a great English philosopher and thinker, son of James Mill—wrote *Political Economy*, *Essay on Liberty*, *System of Logic*, etc.

HENRY THOMAS BUCKLE (1822-1862), Englishman, wrote *History of Civilization*.

HERBERT SPENCER (born 1820)—a distinguished English philosopher—wrote *Social Statics*, *Principles of Psychology*, *Education*, *First Principles of Sociology*, and other works.

SIR WALTER SCOTT (1771-1832)—a great Scotch poet and novelist—wrote many poems and the *Waverley* novels, also a *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*.

ROBERT SOUTHEY (1774-1843)—English poet, one of the three Lake Poets, and poet-laureate for a time—wrote *Life of Nelson*, *Life of Cowper*, and *Life of Wesley*.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH (1770-1850)—another of the Lake Poets, and poet-laureate after Southey—wrote *The Excursion*, *The White Doe of Rylstone*, etc.

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE (1772-1834)—the third of the Lake Poets—wrote *The Ancient Mariner* and *Christobal*, and prose works.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY (1792-1822)—an English dramatic and lyric poet—was drowned in the Bay of Spezzia.

LORD BYRON (1788-1824)—one of the most famous of English poets—was the author of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* and other poems; and died at Missolonghi, in Greece, at the age of thirty-six.

THOMAS MOORE (1779-1852)—Ireland's national poet—was famous for his lyrics.

THOMAS CAMPBELL (1777-1844)—a famous Scotch poet—was the author of *Pleasures of Hope*, *Ye Mariners of England*, *Gertrude of Wyoming*, *Hohenlinden*, etc.

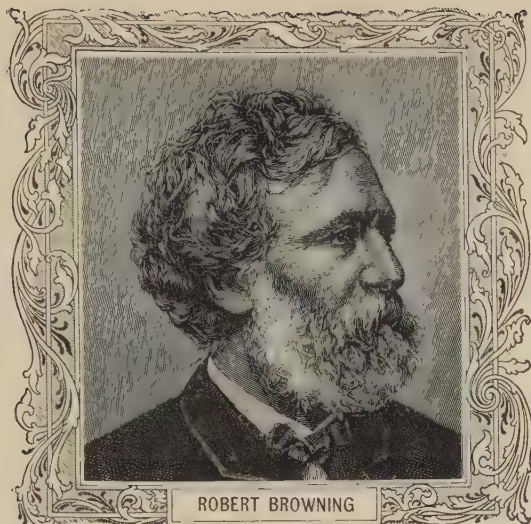
Other English poets were JOHN KEATS (1796-1820), who died at the age of twenty-four; JAMES SHERIDAN KNOWLES (1784-1862), author of *William Tell*, *Virginus* and other dramas; THOMAS HOOD (1798-1845), author of *The Bridge of Sighs* and *Song of the Shirt*; SAMUEL ROGERS (1763-1855), a London banker; and the REV. GEORGE CRABBE (1754-1832). Among Scotch poets were JAMES MONTGOMERY (1771-1854); JAMES HOGG (1772-1835); and ROBERT POLLOK (1799-1827). Female poets were MRS. FELICIA DOROTHEA HEMANS (1794-1835); MISS JOANNA BAILLIE (1762-1851); MISS LETITIA E. LONDON (1802-1838); and MISS ELIZA COOK (1817-1889).

THOMAS DE QUINCEY (1785-1859)—"the English Opium Eater"—was a brilliant writer, and wrote *Confessions of an English Opium Eater*.

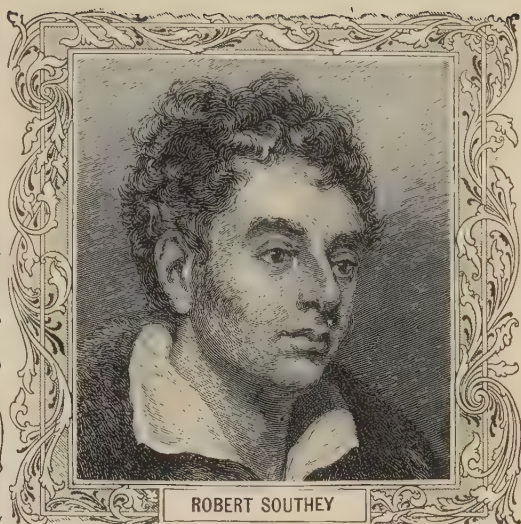
LORD BROUGHAM (1778-1868)—a great scholar, orator, statesman, jurist and reviewer—was one of the great lights of the nineteenth century, was born at Edinburgh, and was of English and Scotch descent.

THOMAS CHALMERS (1780-1847)—a great Scotch divine—was the leader of the *Free Church of Scotland*, and Professor of Theology in the University of Edinburgh.

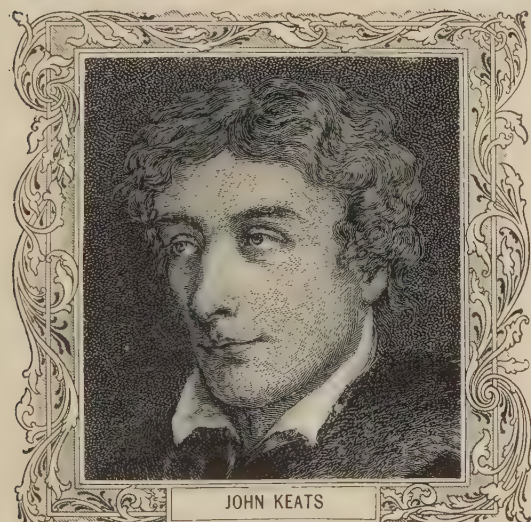
MRS. ANNA LETITIA BARBAULD (1743-1825) wrote for children. The COUNTESS D' ARBLAY (1752-1840), JANE AUSTEN (1775-1817), MARIA EDGEWORTH (1767-1849), and MISS MARY RUSSELL MITFORD (1786-1855) were novelists. CHARLES LAMB (1775-1834), SIR JAMES MACKINTOSH (1765-1832), and WILLIAM HAZLITT (1778-1830) were great essayists. LORD JEFFREY (1773-1850) and SYDNEY SMITH (1771-1845) were great contributors to the *Edinburgh Review*. Among historians were HENRY HALLAM (1778-1859), author of *Constitutional History of England*, *History of the Middle Ages*, and *Literature of Europe*; JOHN LINGARD (1771-1851), author of a Roman Catholic *History of England*; THOMAS ARNOLD of Rugby (1795-1842), author of *History of Rome* and *Lectures on Modern History*; and WILLIAM MITFORD (1744-1827), author of a *History of Greece*.



ROBERT BROWNING



ROBERT SOUTHEY



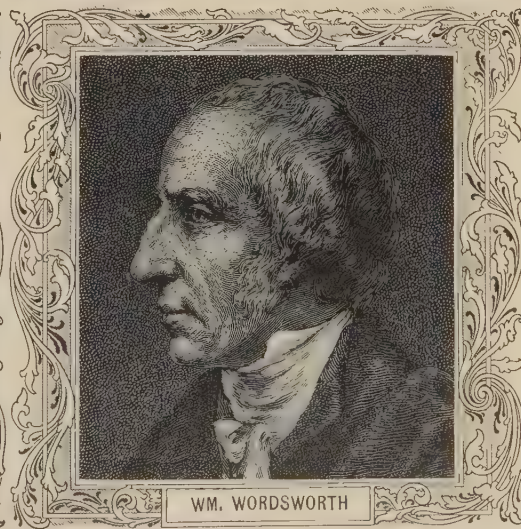
JOHN KEATS



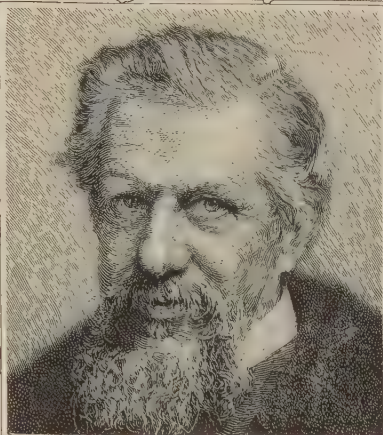
ALFRED TENNYSON



P. B. SHELLEY



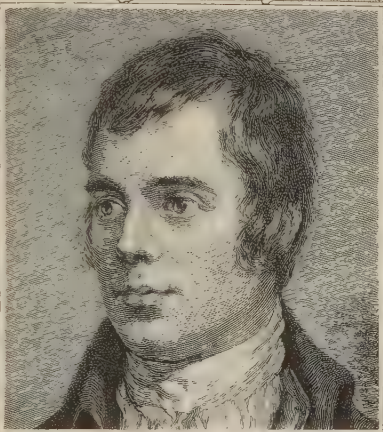
WM. WORDSWORTH



EDWIN ARNOLD



S. T. COLERIDGE



ROBERT BURNS



THOMAS MOORE



LORD BYRON



SIR WALTER SCOTT

ENGLISH POETS OF THE XIX. CENTURY.

DOUGLAS JERROLD (1803-1857)—was an English humorous writer.

ALFRED TENNYSON (1809-1892)—poet-laureate of England during the Victorian Age—was the author of *The Princess*, *In Memoriam*, *Idyls of the King*, *May Queen*, *Enoch Arden*, and other poems. Other eminent English poets have been ROBERT BROWNING (1812-1889); his wife, ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING (1807-1861); MISS JEAN INGELOW (born 1830); WILLIAM MORRIS (born 1834); ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE (born 1837); CHARLES MACKAY (1814-1889); GERALD MASSEY (born 1828); BRYAN WALLER PROCTER (1790-1874); and his daughter, ADELAIDE A. PROCTER (1825-1864); SIR EDWIN ARNOLD (b. 1832).

CHARLES DICKENS (1812-1870)—the most eminent and popular of English novelists—wrote *Nicholas Nickleby*, *David Copperfield*, *Pickwick Papers*, and numerous other novels.

WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY (1811-1862)—a great English novelist—wrote *Vanity Fair*, *Pendennis*, *Henry Esmond*, *The Virginians*, *The Newcomes*, etc.

SIR EDWARD GEORGE BULWER-LYTTON (1805-1873)—likewise a great English novelist—wrote *Pelham*, *Eugene Aram*, *The Last Days of Pompeii*, *Rienzi*, and other novels; also several dramas, as *Richelieu* and *The Lady of Lyons*.

GEORGE ELIOT (1820-1880)—Mrs. Marian Cross (formerly Evans), the greatest English female novelist—wrote *Adam Bede*, *Romola*, *Silas Marner*, *Middlemarch*, *Daniel Deronda*, and other novels.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI, LORD BEACONSFIELD (1805-1881)—the great Tory statesman, of Hebrew descent—wrote *Vivian Grey*, *Coningsby*, etc. Other famous novelists were WILLIAM WILKIE COLLINS (1824-1889); REV. CHARLES KINGSLEY (1819-1875); CHARLES READE (1814-1884); ANTHONY TROLLOPE (1815-1882); and THOMAS HUGHES (1823-1896); member of Parliament, and author of *School Days at Rugby* and *Tom Brown at Oxford*. CHARLOTTE BRONTË (1816-1855) wrote *Jane Eyre*, *Shirley*, and *Villette*.

THOMAS CARLYLE (1795-1881)—a native

of Scotland, but who lived most of his life in London—was one of the greatest of English writers; and his great works were *The French Revolution*, *Life of Frederick the Great*, *Hero Worship*, *Life of Cromwell*, *Sartor Resartus* and numerous *Essays*.

THOMAS BABINGTON MACAULAY (1800-1859)—English historian—was a native of England, but of Scotch descent; and wrote a *History of England* and other works, such as *Essays*, *Lays of Ancient Rome*, etc.

Other historians of the Victorian Age have been GEORGE GROTE (1794-1871), a London banker, author of a *History of Greece*; CONNOP THIRLWALL (1797-1875), also author of a *History of Greece*; SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON (1792-1867), author of a *History of Europe*; JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE (1818-1894), author of *History of England*; HENRY HART MILMAN (1791-1868), author of *History of Christianity*, *History of Latin Christianity*, etc.; REV. CHARLES MERIVALE (1808-1874), author of *History of the Romans*, *Conversion of the Roman Empire*, *Conversion of the Northern Nations*, etc.; GEORGE RAWLINSON (born 1815), author of *Ancient Monarchies*; ALEXANDER WILLIAM KINGLAKE (1802-1891), author of *History of the Invasion of the Crimea*; MISS AGNES STRICKLAND (1806-1874), author of *Queens of England*, etc.; CHARLES KNIGHT (1791-1873) and JOHN RICHARD GREEN (1837-1883), who each wrote histories of England.

JOHN RUSKIN (born 1819)—English art critic—wrote *Modern Painters*, *Seven Lamps of Architecture*, *Stones of Venice*, etc.

MAX MÜLLER (born 1823)—a native of Germany, but Professor of Philology in Oxford University—wrote *Science of Language*, *Chips from a German Workshop*, etc.

REV. CHARLES H. SPURGEON (1834-1892)—the most popular preacher in England—wrote several volumes of sermons.

Other English writers have been HARRIET MARTINEAU (1802-1876); her brother JAMES MARTINEAU (born 1805), a Unitarian divine; MATTHEW ARNOLD (1822-1888), son of the historian, Thomas Arnold of Rugby; and the RIGHT HON. WILLIAM EWART

GLADSTONE (born 1809)—the great Liberal statesman—who wrote *Juventus Mundi*, *Homeric Studies*, etc.

JOSEPH RODMAN DRAKE (1795-1820), of Connecticut—who died at twenty-five—was the author of *The American Flag*.

FITZ-GREENE HALLECK (1795-1867), of Connecticut—Drake's intimate friend—was the author of *Marco Bozzaris*.

JOHN HOWARD PAYNE (1792-1852), of New York—a noted dramatist—wrote *Home*, *Sweet Home*.

EDGAR ALLAN POE (1811-1849), of Baltimore—a brilliant but erratic genius—was the author of *The Raven* and *The Bells*.

JUDGE JOSEPH HOPKINSON (1770-1843), of New Jersey, wrote *Hail Columbia*.

FRANCIS SCOTT KEY (1779-1843)—a young Baltimore lawyer—wrote *The Star Spangled Banner*.

DR. DAVID RAMSAY (1749-1815)—an American historian and a physician—born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, but who lived most of his life in South Carolina—wrote *History of South Carolina*, *History of the United States*, *Universal History*, *Life of Washington*.

WILLIAM WIRT (1772-1834) was a great Virginia lawyer, and author of *The British Spy* and *Life of Patrick Henry*.

JOHN MARSHALL (1775-1835)—also a great Virginia lawyer and Chief-Justice of the United States—wrote a *Life of Washington*.

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON (1780-1851)—a native of Louisiana and a great American ornithologist—was the author of works entitled *Birds of America* and *Quadrupeds of America*.

ALEXANDER WILSON (1766-1813)—a great Scotch-American ornithologist—wrote *American Ornithology*.

JUDGE JAMES KENT (1763-1847), of New York, wrote *Commentaries on American Law*.

JUDGE JOSEPH STORY (1779-1845), of Massachusetts, wrote *Commentary on the Constitution of the United States*, and other legal works.

TIMOTHY DWIGHT (1752-1817)—President of Yale College—was a great divine and writer.

WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING (1780-1842), of Massachusetts, was a great Unitarian divine.

NOAH WEBSTER (1758-1843), of Massachusetts, compiled an English Dictionary.

JOSEPH WORCESTER (1784-1865), of Massachusetts, also compiled an English Dictionary.

DANIEL WEBSTER (1782-1852), of Massachusetts—the greatest of American orators—was one of the three great statesmen who for a quarter of a century adorned the United States Senate with their eloquence and greatness; the other two being HENRY CLAY, of Kentucky (1777-1852), and JOHN C. CALHOUN, of South Carolina (1782-1850).

EDWARD EVERETT (1794-1865), of Massachusetts, was the most polished of American orators, and a great scholar and statesman.

CHARLES SUMNER (1811-1874) was a United States Senator from Massachusetts, and a great scholar, statesman and champion of the rights of the colored race; whose fame was built on great orations, such as *The True Grandeur of Nations*, *The Barbarism of Slavery*, etc.

HENRY WARD BEECHER (1813-1887)—the greatest of American pulpit orators and Congregational pastor in Brooklyn, and son of the famous Rev. Lyman Beecher (1775-1863)—was the author of several volumes of sermons and other works.

THOMAS DE WITT TALMAGE (born 1832) is a popular Presbyterian preacher of Brooklyn, and an author.

WASHINGTON IRVING (1783-1859), of New York—the most popular American prose writer—wrote *Knickerbocker*, *Bracebridge Hall*, *The Sketch-Book*, *Life of Goldsmith*, *Life of Columbus*, *Life of Washington*, *The Alhambra*, *Conquest of Granada*, etc.

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER (1789-1851), of Cooperstown, New York, wrote thirty-three novels.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE (1804-1864), of Concord, Massachusetts, wrote *Scarlet Letter*, *Marble Faun*, and other novels.

MRS. HARRIET BEECHER STOWE (born 1812)—sister of the Rev. Henry Ward



Beecher, and the greatest American female novelist—wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and other novels.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT (1794-1878) born in Massachusetts—editor of the *New York Evening Post*—was the greatest of American poets; and his first poem *Thanatopsis*, he wrote at the age of 18, and his last, *The Flood of Years*, at the age of 82.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW (1807-1882)—of Cambridge, Massachusetts, and the most popular of American poets—wrote *Evangeline* and many other popular poems.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER (1808-1892), of Massachusetts—the Quaker poet—was famous for his anti-slavery poems.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL (1819-1891), of Cambridge, Massachusetts—was a great poet, essayist and critic.

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES (1809-1894), of Cambridge, Massachusetts—was a noted poet and prose writer.

BAYARD TAYLOR (1825-1878), born in Chester county, Pennsylvania—a great traveler, poet and prose writer—translated Gœthe's *Faust*, and composed and recited the National Ode for the 4th of July, 1876, at Philadelphia.

THOMAS BUCHANAN READ (1822-1872), born in Chester county, Pennsylvania—poet and artist—was the author of *Sheridan's Ride*.

JOHN GODFREY SAXE (1816-1887) born in Vermont, a resident of Brooklyn, was a humorous poet.

ALICE and PHŒBE CARY (1820-1871 and 1825-1871)—of New York city, born near Cincinnati—were sisters and the greatest American female poets.

PAUL HAMILTON HAYNE (1845-1886), of South Carolina, was "the Poet of the South."

Other poets have been GEORGE H. BOKER, of Philadelphia (1824-1890); E. C. STEDMAN, a New York banker (born 1833); THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH, a native of Portsmouth, New Hampshire (born 1836), a lyric poet and novelist; J. G. HOLLAND, a poet and novelist (1819-1883), editor of *Scribner's Monthly*; and BRET HARTE (born

1837), and JOAQUIN MILLER (born 1841), both residents of New York city and both having led adventurous lives among the miners in California.

WILLIAM HICKLING PRESCOTT (1796-1859), of Massachusetts—grandson of Colonel William Prescott, of Bunker Hill fame—was the author of *Ferdinand and Isabella*, *Conquest of Mexico*, *Conquest of Peru*, *Robertson's Charles V.*, *Philip II.*, and *Miscellanies*.

GEORGE BANCROFT (1800-1891)—born at Worcester, Massachusetts—was the author of a standard *History of the United States*.

JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY (1814-1877), of Massachusetts, was the author of *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, *History of the United Netherlands*, and *John of Barneveldt*.

RICHARD HILDRETH (1807-1865), of Massachusetts, was the author of a *History of the United States*.

Other historians have been FRANCIS PARKMAN (1823-1893), of Massachusetts, author of *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, *The Jesuits in America*, *The Discovery of the Great West*, *The Pioneers of France in the New World*; BENSON JOHN LOSSING (1813-1891), of Poughkeepsie, New York, author of *Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution*, *History of the War of 1812*, *Pictorial History of the Civil War*; and REV. JOHN S. C. ABBOTT (1805-1877), of Massachusetts, author of *History of Napoleon Bonaparte*, *History of Napoleon III.*, *History of the Civil War in America*, and other works. HORACE GREELEY (1811-1872), born in New Hampshire—founder and editor of *The New York Tribune*, and the prince of journalists—wrote *The American Conflict*, *Recollections of a Busy Life*, etc. HENRY WILSON (1812-1875), of Massachusetts—Vice President of the United States from 1873 to 1875—wrote a *History of the Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America*. The most noted biographers have been JARED SPARKS (1794-1866), editor of *American Biography*, *Life of Washington*, *Life of Franklin*, etc.; and JAMES PARTON (1822-1891), author of *Life of Jackson*, *Life of Franklin*, *Life of Jefferson*, *Famous Americans*, *People's Book of Biography*, etc.

THEODORE PARKER (1810-1860)—a Ra-

tionalist divine of Boston—was a great thinker and vigorous writer.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON (1803-1882), of Massachusetts—"the Sage of Concord" and the most profound and original of American thinkers, and head of the "transcendental school of philosophy"—was the author of *English Traits*, *Representative Men*, and several volumes of *Essays*.

Among scientific writers were JOHN W. DRAPER (1811-1881)—Professor of Chemistry in the University of New York, and born in England—author of *History of the Conflict between Science and Religion*, *History of the Intellectual Development of Europe*, *History of the American Civil War*, and many scientific works; HON. GEORGE P. MARSH (born 1801), and PROF. W. D. WHITNEY (1827-1894), of Yale College, authors of works on language; JAMES MCCOSH (1811-1894), of Princeton College, a metaphysician, who came to America from Scotland in 1868; FRANCIS WAYLAND (1796-1865), of Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island, author of *Moral Science*, *Intellectual Philosophy* and *Political Economy*; and HORACE MANN (1796-1859), the great Massachusetts educator.

CHAMPOLLION (1791-1832) was a great French Egyptologist.

CHATEAUBRIAND (1768-1848)—a famous French poet—wrote *Genius of Christianity*.

BERANGER (1780-1857) was a celebrated French lyric poet.

LAMARTINE (1790-1869) was a French poet and prose writer, orator and politician.

SISMONDI (1773-1842)—a famous French historian and political economist, a Swiss by birth—wrote *History of the Italian Republics* and *History of France*.

GUIZOT (1787-1875)—a famous French statesman and historian—wrote *History of Civilization in Europe* and other works.

LOUIS ADOLPHE THIERS (1797-1877)—a great French statesman and historian—was the author of *The French Revolution* and *The Consulate and the Empire*.

The brothers THIERRY (1795-1856 and 1797-1873), French historians, wrote respectively of the *Norman Conquest* and *Gauls*.

MIGNET (1796-1884), Frenchman, wrote a *History of the French Revolution*.

MICHELET (1798-1874), Frenchman, wrote *History of France*, etc.

ALEXANDER DUMAS (1803-1870), was a great French novelist.

ERNEST RENAN (1823-1892), was a French critic and orientalist, author of *Life of Jesus* and *Saint Paul*.

VICTOR HUGO (1802-1885) was an illustrious French poet, dramatist, novelist, historian and politician, whose best known works are *Notre Dame*, *Les Misérables*, and *Ninety-three*.

DE TOCQUEVILLE (1805-1856)—a French statesman and author—wrote *Democracy in America* and other works.

RICHTER (1763-1825) was a celebrated German author and humorist.

AUGUSTUS VON KOTZEBUE (1761-1819)—a great German dramatist—became a Russian subject, and was murdered while Russian Consul-General in Germany.

LUDWIG UHLAND (1787-1862) was a renowned German lyric poet.

HEINRICH HEINE (1799-1856) was a famous German poet.

WILLIAM VON HUMBOLDT (1767-1835)—brother of Alexander von Humboldt—was a great Prussian statesman and philologist.

FREDERICK and AUGUSTUS WILLIAM SCHLEGEL (1772-1829 and 1767-1845), brothers, were great German philologists, antiquarians and poets.

JACOB and WILLIAM GRIMM (1785-1863 and 1786-1859), brothers—illustrious German philologists and antiquarians—were the founders of the science of comparative philology, and authors of *Teutonic Grammar*, *German Dictionary* and *Household Tales*.

NIEBUHR (1776-1831) was a great German historian and lecturer on Ancient History.

NEANDER (1789-1850) was an eminent German church historian.

ROTTECK (1775-1840)—a German statesman and historian—wrote a *History of the World*.

HEEREN (1760-1842) was a great German historian.

SCHLOSSER (1776-1861)—a noted German historian—wrote a *History of the Eighteenth Century*.

LEOPOLD VON RANKE (1795-1886), German, author of *History of the Popes* and a *Universal History*.

MOMMSEN (born 1817), German, author of a *History of Rome*.

CURTIUS (born 1814), German, wrote a *History of Greece*.

KARL RITTER (1779-1839) was a great German geographer.

BUNSEN (1791-1860) was a great Prussian writer and ambassador, author of *God in History*.

PESTALOZZI (1746-1827) was a great Swiss teacher and educational writer.

FROEBEL (1782-1852), was a German educator, founder of the Kindergarten system of education.

PUSHKIN (1799-1837)—of negro descent—was the greatest of Russian poets.

LERMONTOFF (1814-1841) was a famous Russian poet.

ALEXEI TURGENEFF (1785-1845) was a Russian historian.

IVAN TURGENEFF (1818-1883) was a Russian novelist.

HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN (1805-1875) was a Danish novelist and story-writer.

FREDRIKA BREMER (1801-1866) was a great Swedish female novelist.

JOSEPH M. W. TURNER (1775-1851) was an English historical and landscape painter.

SIR EDWIN LANDSEER (1802-1873) was a celebrated English painter.

GILBERT STUART (1756-1828) was a famous American portrait painter.

WASHINGTON ALLSTON (1779-1843) was a great American portrait, landscape and historical painter, and author.

HORACE VERNET (1789-1863) was one of the greatest of French painters.

GUSTAVE DORÉ (1833-1883) was a distinguished French painter, famous for his illustrations of Dante's works, and of *Don Quixote* and *The Wandering Jew*.

WILHELM VON KAULBACH (1805-1874) was the most illustrious modern German painter, whose masterpieces are *The Battle*

of the Huns and *The Destruction of Jerusalem*.

THORWALDSEN (1770-1844) was a celebrated Danish sculptor.

BEETHOVEN (1770-1827) was a great German musical composer, among whose oratorios is *The Mount of Olives*, and among whose operas is *Fidelio*.

WEBER (1786-1826) was a renowned German musical composer, whose greatest work is *Der Freischütz*.

MEYERBEER (1794-1864) was a celebrated German musical composer, whose greatest operas were *Robert le Diable*, *The Huguenots*, *The Prophets* and *L'Africaine*.

MENDELSSOHN (1809-1847) was a German-Jewish musical composer, whose chief works are his music for the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, and his sublime oratorios, *St. Paul* and *Elijah*.

WAGNER (1813-1883) was a famous German musical composer, whose great operas are *Tannhauser*, *Lohengrin* and *Meister-singer*.

SCHUBERT (1797-1828) was a great German musical composer.

SCHUMANN (1810-1856) was a great German musical composer.

ROSSINI (1792-1868), Italian, composed operas, *William Tell* and *The Barber of Seville*.

DONIZETTI (1798-1848), Italian, wrote operas, as *Lucrezia Borgia* and *Lucia di Lammermoor*.

BELLINI (1802-1835), Italian, wrote operas, as *Norma*, *Somnambula* and *The Puritans*.

VERDI (born 1814), Italian, wrote operas, as *Il Trovatore* and *La Traviata*.

AUBER (1782-1871), French musician.

BERLIOZ (1803-1869), Frenchman, wrote numerous operas.

GOUNOD (1818-1893) was the greatest of French musical composers.

RUBINSTEIN (1830-1894) was a renowned Russian musical composer and pianist.

JENNY LIND (1821-1887) was a renowned Swedish singer.

CHRISTINE NILSSON (born 1843) is also a noted Swedish singer.

PAREPA ROSA (1836-1874) was a distinguished English singer.

ADELINA PATTI (born 1843) is a famous operatic singer, born in Madrid.

MILLAIS, SIR JOHN EVERETT (1829-1896), famous English painter, his notable works embracing a number of subjects. He was president of the Royal Academy of England.

CHILDS, GEORGE W. (1829-1894), American newspaper publisher and proprietor, but celebrated especially for his many philanthropic acts.

BULOW, HANS VON (1830-1894), German pianist of world-wide reputation. His wife was a daughter of Franz List, the composer. He was also a great admirer of Richard Wagner.

KOSSUTH, LOUIS (1802-1894), Hungarian patriot; died in voluntary exile.

COLERIDGE, JOHN DUKE (1820-1894), English jurist. At the time of his death he was Lord Chief Justice of England. His career at the bar was marked by the display of great legal acumen, while upon the bench he was one of England's most learned jurists.

HELMHOLTZ, HERMAN LUDWIG FERDINAND VON (1821-1894), German scientist. He made many notable discoveries in physics, the most important of these being the ophthalmoscope, by which the interior of the eye can readily be examined. He also published a great number of scientific works.

STEVENSON, ROBERT LOUIS (1850-1894), Scotch novelist. He published a number of works of fiction which gave him a very high rank in the world of letters.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE (*fils*) (1824-1895), distinguished French novelist and playwright. He wrote a number of books and plays which became famous.

LEIGHTON, SIR FREDERICK, Bart. (1830-1896), celebrated English painter, president of the Royal Academy of England. His works, taken as a whole, were upon classic subjects.

THOMAS, AMBROSE (1811-1896), French musical composer. He wrote no less than twenty-three operas, and for twenty-five

years was director of the Paris Conservatoire.

HIRSCH, BARON MAURICE DE (1831-1896), a Jewish financier, but noted specially for his great philanthropy. His estate was estimated at \$200,000,000, and he devoted much of his wealth to aid the persecuted people of his own race.

MORRIS, WILLIAM, English poet and littérateur, died in 1896. He accomplished a large amount of general literary work, but is best known because of his poems and his pronounced socialistic views.

PITMAN, SIR ISAAC (1813-1897), English inventor. He is noted as being the inventor of the shorthand system of writing which bears his name.

DOUGLASS, FREDERICK (1817-1895). His mother was a slave, and he was never certain of even the year of his birth. He early developed an aptitude for learning and a desire for knowledge, and was compelled to acquire it through many vicissitudes, as the slave-owners in the United States at that time did not look with favor on the education of slaves, and Mr. Douglass's master was no exception to this rule. At the age of fifteen he ran away from his master, and from that time until the emancipation of the slaves in the United States in 1863 devoted his energies to the accomplishment of that object; and afterwards he was the acknowledged political leader of the colored race in the United States, and did much to better its condition in many ways.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

In 1895 a cheap method by which acetylene gas could be made was discovered; this was of great importance in the manufacture of illuminating gas. Glucinum, a metal with properties specially fitting it for use for electrical purposes, was brought into use in the same year. The largest black diamond ever known was found in Brazil in the same year; it weighed three thousand and seventy-three carats—over two thousand carats more than the largest known prior to this time.





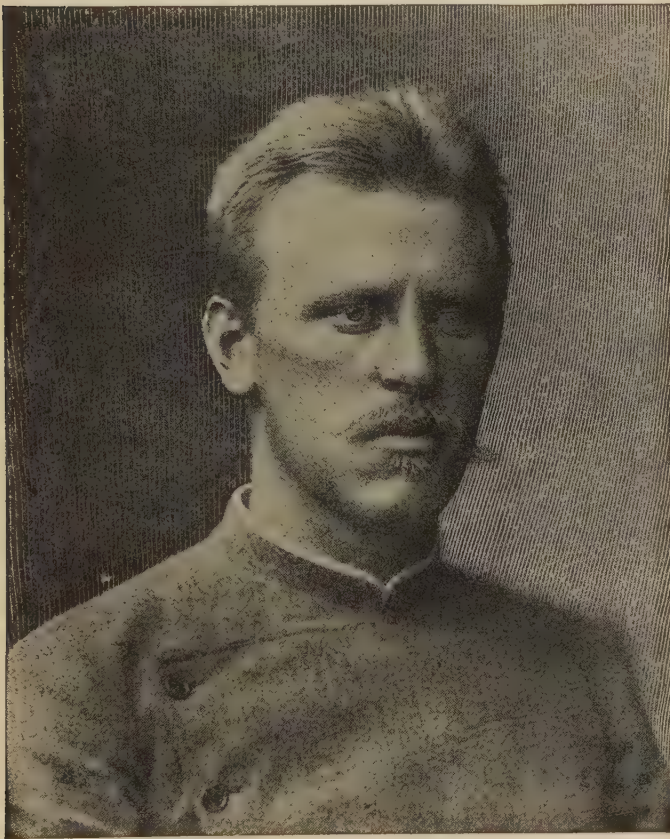
In the year 1895, by means of negative plates taken under the photographic telescope in Peru, two new stars, which burst into brilliancy and soon afterwards faded, were discovered; only sixteen similar discoveries were made in the two thousand preceding years. In 1896 several comets were discovered; also five new asteroids. The lost companion of Sirius was rediscovered, and in mathematical astronomy there were new determinations of the sun's distance and solar parallax by the heliometer.

Norway, succeeded in penetrating the region about the North Pole to the highest point that had ever been attained,—lat. $86^{\circ} 15'$. He reached a point about two hundred and twenty-five miles from the Pole without any serious mishap, and claimed that only the lack of dogs and proper equipment prevented his covering the latter distance. The highest point attained prior to this time was lat. $83^{\circ} 24'$, by Lieut. A. W. Greely, in 1882. The special medal of the Royal Geographical Society was presented to Dr.

Nansen on February 8, 1897, by the Prince of Wales. The presentation took place at the close of Dr. Nansen's lecture in Royal Albert Hall, amid the cheers of 7,000 persons, among them the most distinguished people in London. This is the second time this medal has been given to an explorer: Henry M. Stanley was the first to be thus honored.

During the years 1895 and 1896 machines were invented for setting type, in the United States. The telephotograph was invented in Sweden in 1895; it was an instrument to reproduce to the eye pictures transmitted from a distance, performing for the eye the same office the telephone does for the ear. In the same year the horseless carriage began to come into general use in certain parts of France and Europe. There were many kinds of these carriages propelled by gas,

steam or electricity. The advances made in electricity as a motive power were so rapid that in the beginning of the year 1897 the use of horses had been almost entirely superseded on the street railways of the United States and Europe. Many machines were invented during 1895 and 1896 for reproducing by means of photography and elec-



FRIDTJOF NANSEN.

During the same year an official report of recent surveys of Hudson's bay, in North America, showed that the land lying around this body of water was rapidly rising and the water becoming shallower or disappearing altogether.

In April, 1895, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, of

tricity, scenes and incidents full of life and action, life size, and complete in every detail. Among these were the eidoloscope, kinetoscope and cinematographe. The two former

of the University of Woerzburg, Bavaria, discovered a new method of penetrating opaque bodies with the radiant energy of light. Not only did the announce-



MAP SHOWING ROUTES OF DR. NANSEN'S POLAR EXPEDITION.

were American inventions, and the latter French. In 1895 a machine for rapid printing telegraphy was invented. Early in January, 1896, Prof. William Konrad Roentgen,

ment cause a sensation in the world of science, but it also appealed to the unscientific mind in a way that had rarely found parallel. This discovery made it

possible to secure photographs of objects inaccessible to any rays of light heretofore known, such as metallic objects incased in wood, leather or iron, and the bones and other objects within the body.



PROFESSOR ROENTGEN.

In the ten years ending February 1, 1897, nearly 5,000 patents had been secured in the United States for inventions in the use and application of electricity alone.

In the year 1896 important archæological results were obtained at Babylon by a party sent out from the University of Pennsylvania. Excavations revealed the fact that one city had been built upon another in a series of stratifications, the lowest of which it was thought had not been reached up to

March, 1897. Cuneiform inscriptions were discovered, however, which carry the history of the people of Babylon back to about 7000 B.C., being a date about 2,250 years earlier than had ever before been verified.

The nineteenth century has been a period of great advancement in the condition of the human race morally. Though there is still a great deal of vice and crime, there has been a vast improvement over the past in this respect. In Great Britain and the United States, religious organizations and temperance societies have done much to elevate the condition of society in this regard. The spread of popular intelligence has contributed immensely to such moral improvement among the masses.

The social condition of the masses has gradually improved, though the whole has hardly kept pace with the progress in other directions. Labor organizations in Great Britain and the United States have contributed more than any other agency in raising and maintaining the standard of wages and in advancing the social condition of the laboring classes in general.

The means of communication and intercourse have tended to bring the various portions of mankind more closely together, and to harmonize conflicting interests. Railroads and telegraphs have done more within the last half-century to bind various parts of each country together than constitutions have done, and the same agencies have done more to spread Christian civilization in barbarous and non-Christian lands than missionaries have done. On the whole, "the world has been growing better."

THE EASTERN QUESTION

BY PROFESSOR BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER.



HE Eastern question is not a question of to-day nor of yesterday. When European history first began to be written it was already there. It was there before there was any Russia or any Turkey or any England. It indeed created the ancient national-

ity Greece, so far as such nationality ever existed. Greece sprang into being as a nationality out of its discordant elements to face the Eastern question. It is not a question about who shall have Constantinople. That is a phase of a greater question, which one must understand in order to

have proper perspective in this mere phase of the question. It is a question which in its reality concerns the perennial antithesis between Occidentalism and Orientalism, and which in its practical statement for us and ours means this: Who is to lead, who is to champion, who is to represent Occidentalism in its dealings and in its inevitable conflicts with Orientalism?

When the Eastern question is reopened all the world is concerned. Russia is concerned, because it affects her route to the sea, and, what is more, her relations to England in Asia. Austria is concerned because it affects her prospects among the Balkan States at her southeast. France is concerned because it affects her commercial ambitions in the Orient, her claims in Africa, her route to the East and the interests of Russia, her great ally. Germany, though Bismarck has said the Eastern question is not worth the bones of one Pomeranian grenadier, is yet actively concerned, because of her relations to Russia and France. England is concerned because of Russia and her own life-and-death interest as the maintainer of a world-empire in the Suez Canal. All the colonial interests in Southern Asia and in Africa are concerned. International politics all over the world, whatever the apparent issue and habitat, are resolvable into some form of the Eastern question and stand in sensitive connection with this great political storm-centre of the world, the *Ægean* and the *Bosporus*. America is well isolated and self-absorbed, but the great question of international arbitration is most delicately articulated with the Eastern question in its larger bearings.

But the struggle between Occidentalism and Orientalism, and who is to lead as champion of the former, constitutes what may be called the greater Eastern question. When one crosses the *Ægean*, which is at one part only 100 miles wide, or crosses the *Bosporus*, which is merely a broad river, deep and rich, flowing down out of the Black Sea, and comes to the shores of Asia Minor, one becomes aware that he has passed out of one world into another world.

He has passed out of the Occident into the Orient, and where the boundary is to-day, a boundary that every one feels who passes it, there it was of yore, fixed as by the decree of fate. Whoever has crossed that boundary has left the active and ambitious Occident and has entered into the vast, dreamy, passive, timeless, fatalistic Orient.

The contrast between those two things, Occidentalism and Orientalism, you cannot mistake. The West is full of creation, progress, restlessness, achievement, failure, disappointment, exultation; the East abounds in quietism, resignation and blissful stagnation.

Those are the great outlines of the difference, but they are outlines which force an absolute frontier through life, through the nations of men. That frontier now has stood all these ages in its most marked form right there at the *Ægean* and great *Bosporus*, and along that frontier line the great conflicts between Occidentalism and Orientalism have over and over again been fought out. Over that frontier influences have gone from one to the other. Greece stands there at the gateway, and whatever comes from Asia to Europe comes through it. This is the lesson of early European civilization: Will, force, empire came down from the north; refinement and civilization moved back in the reverse of their track.

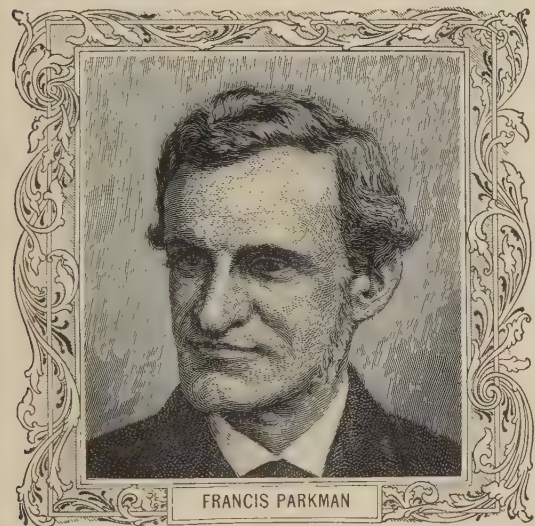
The reaction from Alexander's onslaught upon the East came late, but it came strong. It came in the form of Islam. Mahometanism is inspired Orientalism; it is Orientalism set on fire. On came Islam in a mighty tide, seeming, as it were, to have gathered force from the strong impact of Alexander's onslaught a thousand years before, as well as from having been pent up under that tremendous pressure which the Roman Empire urged upon it for so long. It came on in a terrible tidal wave, swept across Northern Africa, across Spain, half across France, all over Asia Minor, up into the map of Europe to the gates of Vienna, and buried old Greece under a terrible slavery for centuries.



GEO. BANCROFT



T. B. MACAULEY



FRANCIS PARKMAN



THEO. MOMMSEN

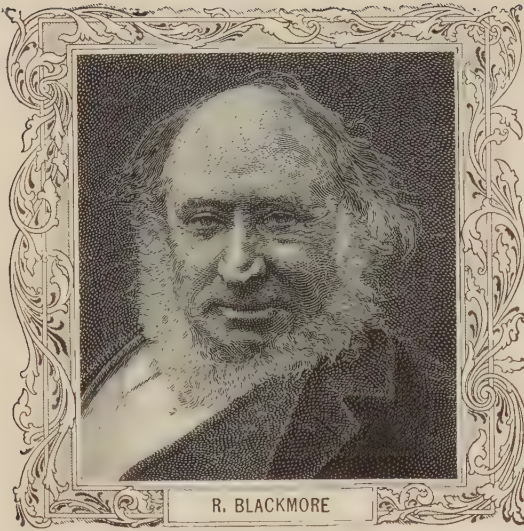


WM. H. PRESCOTT



J. L. MOTLEY

HISTORIANS.



R. BLACKMORE



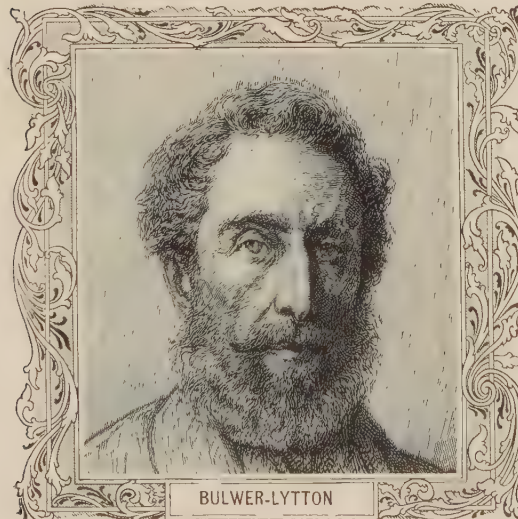
CHAS. DICKENS



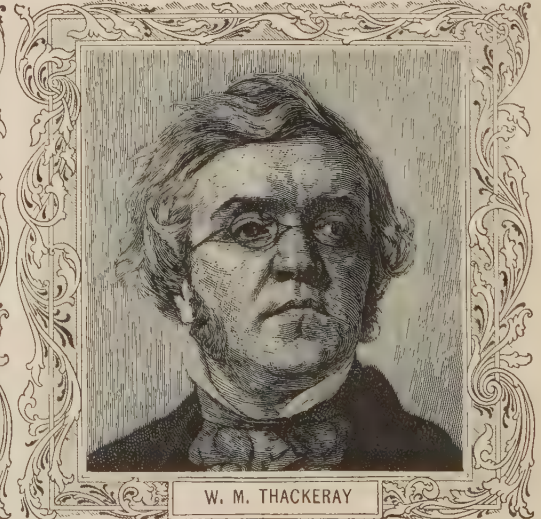
CHARLOTTE BRONTË



GEORGE ELIOT



BULWER-LYTTON



W. M. THACKERAY

GREAT ENGLISH NOVELISTS.

That was the reverse tide. The reaction set in long ago. Spain was long since cleansed. This century has done noble work in cleansing. The Balkan States have been freed; Greece since the twenties has been free. The Sick Man of Constantinople, more accurately termed the Great Assassin, lingers there by slender footing. He stays where he is by the sufferance of the Powers, or rather as the Persian Empire stood—namely, so long as the Greeks could not agree among themselves about the leadership of Occidentalism. That is what we are waiting for now. Who is to be the leader of Occidentalism in these last years of the nineteenth century?

Who is to be the champion of Occidentalism in the twentieth century? This is the practical form in which the greater Eastern question is stated to us now. Is such a champion to be found among the nations which now surround the Ægean and the Bosphorus? That is to say, is the greater Eastern question to be settled in terms of the lesser?

First of all, Turkey commands our attention. She sits still at the old-time gate by the Bosphorus.

The guns at the fort at Kum Kaleh still command the entrance to the Dardanelles. As a state, Turkey is a heterogeneous assemblage of peoples under the absolute sway of the Sultan. It is a government lacking altogether a sense for the right of a community to choose concerning its own government. It thoroughly represents the Oriental idea whereby government is transcendent, a power above and outside the people, and not immanent, a power within the people. Herein lies the application of the Occidental-Oriental antithesis to political institutions.

Turkey, though thoroughly Oriental in its political ideas, maintains its place on Occidental soil because the forces of Occidentalism cannot agree among themselves as to leadership. It is a stranded wreck left high and dry beyond the sea-wall by a receding tidal wave, but no one clears it away, because the land is in litigation.

Among the various peoples and races whom the fate of history has assigned to Turkish sway are the Armenians. Though their proper district is a province, in North-eastern Asia Minor, they are found scattered all through the Orient, nearly a quarter of a million of them living in Constantinople alone, and constituting nearly a quarter of its population. The Turkish Empire, however, in its lack of sense for what we may call distributed government, has no place for their individuality in its scheme. They are to the Turks, as far as they possess individuality and the tendency to use it, simply a plague spot in the Empire.

Crete is another plague spot on the Turkish map. The population of the island is essentially Greek. Of the quarter million inhabiting it there are perhaps 50,000 Mussulmans, but all speak Greek. Since the seventeenth century it has been in the hands of Turkey. The insurrection of 1866-68 stirred profoundly the sympathy of Christian peoples, but the governments of Europe as represented by the Powers insisted even with a severe menace to Greece in maintaining the *status quo* of Turkish possession. Repeated insurrections have taken place, notably those of 1891 and 1896; indeed, the island has been in a perpetual state of unrest during most of the century. Various promises of reformed administration have been at different times made by Turkey, but no satisfactory government has resulted. Turkey is unable to administer government.

To the mind of the Turk the Greek is what the Armenian is—a nuisance. Their theory of government has no solution for their problems except utter subjugation or extermination. Similar conditions exist in the coast districts of Macedonia and in Epirus, though in the latter the discontent is not so acute or so well formulated. In both, the prevailing population is Greek, and the language, even of the Mussulman, in the latter, Greek. The unnaturalness of the situation teaches that postponement of a settlement can only be temporary. These

districts represent areas still half submerged in the stagnant pools of Islam's retreating tide. No fresh wave is coming. The sooner they are drained off and returned to tillage the better for the world. Still the selfish cowardice of the Powers hesitates. The greatest apprehension attaches to any consideration of any change whatsoever in the existing status. The moment the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire in Europe begins, a long list of long filed claims must be considered. They are unwilling to proceed piecemeal. They are unwilling to recognize preferred creditors. Crete, too, lies on the route to the Suez Canal. It is possible there are other ambitions than those of Greece.

The Greeks are a people that must be reckoned with in the future settlement of Eastern questions. Commercial interest around the entire line of the Ægean are largely in Greek hands. More than one-fourth of the population of Constantinople itself is Greek. Now that the Greek state has been created, it constitutes a rendezvous and point *d'appui* for the sentiment of nationality among the scattered millions of Greek blood and language. The Greek nation itself is bankrupt. The land offers no great hope of greatness under present-day conditions. It is not suited to agriculture. It has neither water power, minerals in abundance, nor coal supply. But it has an energetic, active, optimistic, though restless and impulsive and, as yet, half-educated people. They are abstemious and thrifty. In foreign lands they accumulate wealth. They are profoundly patriotic. All the traditions of their glorious past are moulded into the substance of their modern national life. They are thorough Occidentals, and their antagonism to Orientalism, both in spirit and in the concrete forms of Turkey and Turks, is thorough. The fight with them is on and it will last to the death, because it is grounded in an indestructible difference of thought, mood and character.

Among the small States of the Balkan Peninsula, Bulgaria is now the one de-

veloping most rapidly in strength and prestige. She has become the rival of Greece among the lesser States. They both look with greedy eyes toward Macedonia, whose inland population is Slavic, but whose coast population is Greek. They both have in mind the remoter thought concerning the ultimate disposition of Constantinople. It has been the dream of Greek politicians for generations, the so-called *grande idée*, that some day Constantinople would be restored to Greek possession. But Bulgaria is on the high road, and behind is the solid push of Pan Slavism. Bulgaria is now reconciled with Servia and Montenegro, and, by the formal act of allowing the baptism of the Crown Prince into the Eastern Church, sealed her acceptance of Russia's headship. As the Prince of Bulgaria said on the occasion of the baptism: "I turn my face toward the East." All the Balkan States, with the exception of Roumania, have, therefore, now virtually accepted the suzerainty of Russia. Roumania, in her isolation, has reestablished friendly relations with Greece.

Austria, of all the great powers, fears most acutely the reopening of the Eastern question. The Slavic-Balkan States, consolidated now under Russia's protection, interpose between her and the Ægean a solid wall. It has been her eager ambition to secure a port on the Ægean (Salonika), and a right of way to it. She has now no chance. Any dislodgement of conditions in the Orient at this time could bring her no good, and only relative injury.

Germany utilizes her influence as a power apparently in Russia's interest, so far as the Eastern question is concerned. Direct interest she seems to have none. But she has a great interest in retaining the friendship of Russia. She stands between the upper and nether millstones of France and Russia. If both are hostile she is lost. It is, therefore, her policy to trade the interests of the East for Russian favors. The failure of England's effort a year ago to extort reforms from the Sultan — the fiasco

of Salisbury and Salonika — was due more or less directly to Germany's duplicity. Germany played secretly Russia's game, with the result that Turkey became a province of Russia.

This brings us to Russia. What power is there in the neighborhood of Constantinople competent to enter in and possess it? Is it Greece? Her historical claim is good. Constantinople is an old Greek town. One-quarter or one-third its present population is Greek. The common language of its commerce is Greek. The tidal wave that put the Turk in possession dispossessed Greeks. It is historical justice that, with the retreat of the wave and the reestablishment of Occidentalism, Greece or Greeks should return to their right. But this is a dream of the past. Greece is not strong enough. The day is past when little, shrunken, barren Greece can support a people to lead the world, or even to assert a place among the leaders. Constantinople must needs belong to or be controlled by a leader.

Russia seems to-day the destined possessor. She was once at its gates, and only England's interposition kept her out. England's prestige in the Orient has suffered severe loss by the collapse of her Armenian policy. Russia has made steady gains. The Slavic-Balkan States are her children, first by moral claims, for she freed them; now by formal diplomatic recognition. They are closing in steadily about Constantinople. Turkey herself has become virtually a Russian province. Russia has, besides, a natural geographic claim. So great a power as that cannot be cooped up away from the seaboard. The Bosphorus is her natural exit. She is a great world-power bestriding Europe and Asia. France and China, as well as Turkey, are her allies, almost her provinces. She is immensely strong in her position with her back against the ice of the North, and no enemy to menace her there but the Polar bears. She is strong for diplomatic aggression, because her whole power can be swung by a single hand. Safe is her position, unmenaced

from the rear, she has only to bide her time, and, as occasion offers, to push forward.

She is strong, furthermore, in a certain sympathy her semi-barbarism has with that of the border peoples of Asia. The peoples of the East always prefer the Russian to the Englishman. The Englishman they find to be blunt. They think him harsh and selfish. They think him blunt, chiefly because he tells the truth. Russian diplomacy understands the Oriental use of language. Language is used by the Oriental for the purpose of producing kindly feeling or inducing another mortal to see things as you do, but certainly not for the purpose of reporting upon objective verities. It is a mechanism for reporting upon the greater subjective verities. The Englishman is not liked, though England is everywhere highly respected, feared and trusted.

Constantinople has been for the last dozen years systematically fortified against the English to the west, not against Russia to the east. A Russian army can enter Constantinople at will. I know that when the question of forcing the Dardanelles with an English fleet was agitated last winter, the English naval authorities estimated that of the nineteen ships lying at Salonika, six must be sacrificed to do it. The cards have been stacked for Russia.

It looks to-day as if the ultimate occupation of Constantinople by Russia were a foregone conclusion.

What has England to say? The matter concerns her. It seemed, for a time, that the discovery of the route by the Cape of Good Hope would provide an evasion of the Eastern question and free her from the necessity of worrying about the *Ægean*. But the opening of the Suez Canal has changed things, and, as if by jealous interposition of geographic fate, drawn the issue back to the old fighting ground in the Eastern Mediterranean. England must, if she is to hold India and Australia, control the Suez Canal and its approaches.

In severe contrast with Russia, England stands in political isolation, a grand

isolation, strong not by alliances, but in and by her own intelligence, rectitude and Anglo-Saxon grit. Within the last five years England has made up her mind that she must be strong enough, if necessary, to face all Europe single-handed. Within that time her navy has been doubled in strength. Within the next two years her army will be. She is preparing for an inevitable conflict. That conflict concerns this question: Who is to be the leader and champion of Occidentalism in the twentieth century? Shall it be the Anglo-Saxon or the Slav?

Has Russia the natural right to be the leader of Occidentalism? Occidentalism grounds itself in the right of the individual personality and the individual community to find the law of its action in its own purposes of being. Russia represents government from above and from outside. It means consolidation, not distribution of government. It pushes its interests by appeal to the unreal and by use of deceit. The English Empire, ill-defined as it may be in its apparent organization, is so by virtue of reliance on the immanent governing power of self-directing bodies of men of whom it may be said: "The law is within them."

The world is arraying itself in two great camps. Russia spans the north from China to France, and, guiding the foreign policy of Germany, rules in the last decision Northern Asia and all Europe, except England and Italy. England spans the seas and holds in a mysterious bond of common interest and guaranteed justice the diverse elements of her world-empire. Russia's strength has been possibly greatly overestimated. The bonds which hold her empire together might weaken under the testing of adversity. Those which bind the British Empire together would strengthen. The financial difficulties which Russia would face in the event of a great struggle are an element of great weakness in her situation. England's resources are unlimited, infinitely varied and self-supplied. The power of the British Em-

pire as it is now organized has never been called to the test. I believe it to be enormously underrated.

The battle is being arrayed. The prize of victory is the same for which the battle was set of old on the field of Chæroneæ—the leadership of Occidentalism. It may not, we trust it will not, be a battle of arms. It may well become a battle of latent forces. Whatever its form, it will be a battle between the Slav and the Anglo-Saxon, and when it comes the Anglo-Saxon world must not be divided against itself.

It is no longer a question merely who shall hold Constantinople or who shall control the Suez Canal, who shall command the Pass of Thermopylæ, or who shall control the oracle of Delphi. It is a larger question, and it concerns larger interests. It concerns the habitable globe.

If out of the Venezuelan controversy shall finally issue an agreement for permanent international arbitration, then Anglo-Saxon spirit may well enough set out to face the world. In the arbitration treaty the Anglo-Saxon race will say to itself: "We will not spend our strength in fighting each other." In the Venezuelan settlement England says to the United States: "We leave you to fulfil your mission as representing the Anglo-Saxon spirit in the New World. We shall not be hampered in fulfilling ours in the Old." That mission means what, by and large, has in the past happened wherever English sway has gone: Equal justice shall be guaranteed to weak and strong. The weak shall not have less rights because they are weak or the strong more rights because they are strong, but men shall have equal rights before the law because they are men. The law shall have its ultimate power in the respect of the governed. Government shall find its sanctions in expressing the purposes and interests of the community governed. Equal justice, personal rights, distributed government, immanency of law; this is the Occidental idea which the Anglo-Saxon spirit offers to champion before the world.

SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS.

THE POPES.

A. D. 42	St. PETER (crucified).	A. D. 536	St. SILVERIUS (banished).
66	St. CLEMENT I.	537	VIGILIUS.
78	St. CLETUS (martyred).	555	PELAGIUS I.
91	St. CLEMENT II. (abdicated).	560	JOHN III.
100	St. EVARISTUS (martyred).	573	A Vacancy.
109	St. ALEXANDER I. (martyred).	574	BENEDICT I.
119	St. SIXTUS I. (martyred).	578	PELAGIUS II.
127	St. TELESOPHORE (martyred).	590	St. GREGORY I. THE GREAT.
139	St. HYGINUS.	604	SABINIUS.
142	St. PIUS I. (martyred).	606	BONIFACE III.
157	St. ANICETUS.	607	BONIFACE IV.
168	St. SOTERUS (martyred).	614	St. DEUDEDIT.
177	St. ELEUTHERIUS.	617	BONIFACE V.
193	St. VICTOR I. (martyred).	625	HONORIUS I.
202	St. ZEPHYRINUS.	639	A Vacancy.
219	St. CALIXTUS I. (martyred).	640	SEVERINUS.
222	A Vacancy.	640	JOHN IV.
223	St. URBAN I. (beheaded).	642	THEODORUS I.
230	St. PONTIANUS (banished).	649	MARTIN I.
235	St. ANTERUS (martyred).	654	EUGENIUS I.
236	St. FABIAN (martyred).	657	VITALIANUS.
250	A Vacancy.	672	ADEODATUS.
251	St. CORNELIUS.	676	DOMNUS I.
252	St. LUCIUS I. (martyred)	678	St. AGATHON.
253	St. STEPHEN I. (martyred).	682	St. LEO II.
257	St. SIXTUS II. (martyred).	683	A Vacancy.
258	A Vacancy.	684	BENEDICT II.
259	St. DIONYSIUS.	685	JOHN V.
269	St. FELIX I. (died in prison).	686	CONON.
275	St. EUTYCHIANUS.	687	SERGIUS I.
283	St. CAIUS.	701	JOHN VI.
296	St. MARCELLINUS.	705	JOHN VII.
304	A Vacancy.	708	SISINNIUS.
308	St. MARCELLUS (banished).	708	CONSTANTINE.
310	St. EUSEBIUS.	715	St. GREGORY II.
311	St. MILCHIADES.	731	GREGORY III.
314	St. SYLVESTER I.	741	St. ZACHARIAS.
336	St. MARCUS.	752	STEPHEN II. (beginning of Pope's temporal power).
337	St. JULIUS I.	757	PAUL I.
352	LIBERIUS (banished).	768	STEPHEN III.
355	FELIX II., anti-pope.	772	ADRIAN I.
358	LIBERIUS restored.	795	LEO III (crowned Charlemagne).
358	FELIX II. again.	816	STEPHEN IV.
359	LIBERIUS again (martyred).	817	PASCAL I.
366	St. DAMASUS I.	824	EUGENIUS II.
367	URSINUS (banished).	827	VALENTINE.
384	SIRICIUS.	828	GREGORY IV.
398	St. ANASTASIUS I.	844	SERGIUS II.
402	St. INNOCENT I.	847	LEO IV.
417	St. ZOZIMUS.	855	BENEDICT III.
418	St. BONIFACE I.	855	ATHANASIUS, anti-pope.
422	St. CELESTINE.	858	NICHOLAS I. THE GREAT.
432	SIXTUS III.	867	ADRIAN II.
440	St. LEO I THE GREAT.	872	JOHN VIII.
461	St. HILARY.	882	MARTIN II.
468	St. SIMPLICIUS.	884	ADRIAN III.
483	St. FELIX III.	885	STEPHEN V.
492	St. GELASIUS I.	891	FORMOSUS (detested, corpse cast into Tiber).
496	St. ATHANASIUS II.	896	BONIFACE VI. (deposed).
498	SYMMACHUS.	897	STEPHEN VI. (strangled in prison).
498	LAURENTIUS, anti-pope.	897	ROMANUS, anti-pope.
514	HORMISDAS.	898	THEODORE II.
523	JOHN I.	898	JOHN IX.
526	FELIX IV.	900	BENEDICT IV.
530	BONIFACE II.	903	LEO V. (died in prison).
533	JOHN II.		
535	AGAPETUS I		

A. D. 903	CHRISTOPHER.	A. D. 1254	ALEXANDER IV.
904	SERGIUS III. (immoral).	1261	URBAN IV.
911	ANASTASIUS III.	1265	CLEMENT IV.
913	LANDONIUS, or LANDO.	1268	A Vacancy.
914	JOHN X. (stified to death)	1271	GREGORY X.
928	LEO VII.	1276	INNOCENT V.
929	STEPHEN VII.	1276	ADRIAN V.
931	JOHN XI. (died a prisoner in St. Angelo Castle).	1276	VICEDOMINUS (died next day).
936	LEO VII. (zealous and pious).	1276	JOHN XX. or XXI.
939	STEPHEN VIII. (of fierce character).	1277	NICHOLAS III.
942	MARTIN III.	1281	MARTIN IV.
946	AGAPETUS II. (of holy life).	1285	HONORIUS IV.
956	JOHN XII. (infamous, murdered).	1288	NICHOLAS IV.
963	LEO VIII.	1292	A Vacancy.
964	BENEDICT V.	1294	St. CELESTINE V. (resigned).
965	JOHN XIII.	1294	BONIFACE VIII. (able Pope).
972	BENEDICT VI. (murdered in prison).	1303	BENEDICT XI. (poisoned).
974	DOMNUS II.	1304	A Vacancy.
974	BONIFACE VII.	1305	CLEMENT V. (first Pope at Avignon).
975	BENEDICT VII.	1314	A Vacancy.
983	JOHN XIV.	1316	JOHN XXII.
984	JOHN XV.	1334	BENEDICT XII. (Nicholas V. anti-pope at Rome).
985	JOHN XVI.	1342	CLEMENT VI.
996	GREGORY V.	1352	INNOCENT VI.
999	SYLVESTER II.	1362	URBAN V.
1003	JOHN XVII.	1370	GREGORY XI. (restores papal residence to Rome).
1003	JOHN XVIII. (abdicated).	1378	URBAN VI. (His severity caused Robert of Geneva to be elected as Clement VII).
1009	SERGIUS IV.	1378	CLEMENT VII., anti-pope.
1012	BENEDICT VIII.	1389	BONIFACE IX.
1024	JOHN XIX. (bought papacy).	1394	BENEDICT XIII. (anti-pope at Avignon).
1033	BENEDICT IX. (Pope at 12 years, deposed).	1404	INNOCENT VII.
1044	GREGORY VI. (abdicated).	1406	GREGORY XII., anti-pope.
1046	CLEMENT II.	1409	ALEXANDER V. (poisoned).
1047	BENEDICT IX. restored.	1410	JOHN XXIII. (deposed).
1048	DAMASUS II.	1417	MARTIN V.
1048	St. LEO IX.	1424	CLEMENT VIII. (resigned 1429).
1054	A Vacancy.	1431	EUGENIUS IV. (deposed by Council of Basle).
1055	VICTOR II.	1439	FELIX V., anti-pope (resigned in 1449).
1057	STEPHEN IX.	1447	NICHOLAS V.
1058	BENEDICT X.	1455	CALIXTUS III.
1058	NICHOLAS II.	1458	PIUS II. (Æneas Silvius).
1061	ALEXANDER II.	1464	PAUL II.
1073	GREGORY VII. (Hildebrand) —ablest Pope.	1471	SIXTUS IV.
1085	A Vacancy.	1484	INNOCENT VIII.
1086	VICTOR III.	1492	ALEXANDER VI. (worst of Popes).
1088	URBAN II.	1503	PIUS III.
1099	PASCAL II.	1503	JULIUS II. (warlike Pope).
1118	GELASIUS II. (became a monk).	1513	LEO X. (John de Medici).
1119	CALIXTUS II.	1522	ADRIAN VI.
1124	HONORIUS II.	1523	CLEMENT VII. (Julius de Medici).
1130	INNOCENT II.	1534	PAUL III.
1138	VICTOR III., (Anacletus II. anti-pope).	1550	JULIUS III.
1143	CELESTINE II.	1555	MARCELLUS II.
1144	LUCIUS II.	1555	PAUL IV.
1145	EUGENIUS III.	1559	PIUS IV. (Cardinal de Medici).
1153	ANASTASIUS IV.	1566	St. PIUS V.
1154	ADRIAN IV. (Nicholas Breakspere, an Englishman).	1572	GREGORY XIII. (reformed calendar).
1159	ALEXANDER III.	1585	SIXTUS V. (able ruler).
1181	LUCIUS III.	1590	URBAN VII. (died in 12 days).
1185	URBAN III.	1590	GREGORY XIV.
1187	GREGORY VIII.	1591	INNOCENT IX.
1187	CLEMENT III.	1592	CLEMENT VIII.
1191	CELESTINE III.	1605	LEO XI.
1198	INNOCENT III. (able Pope)	1605	PAUL V.
1216	HONORIUS III.	1621	GREGORY XV.
1227	GREGORY IX.	1623	URBAN VIII.
1241	CELESTINE IV.	1644	INNOCENT X.
1241	A Vacancy.		
1243	INNOCENT IV.		

A. D. 1655	ALEXANDER VII.	A. D. 1740	BENEDICT XIV.
1667	CLEMENT IX.	1758	CLEMENT XIII.
1670	CLEMENT X.	1769	CLEMENT XIV.
1676	INNOCENT XI.	1775	PIUS VI.
1689	ALEXANDER VIII.	1800	PIUS VII.
1691	INNOCENT XII.	1823	LEO XII.
1700	CLEMENT XI.	1829	PIUS VIII.
1721	INNOCENT XIII.	1831	GREGORY XVI.
1724	BENEDICT XIII.	1846	PIUS IX.
1730	CLEMENT XII	1878	LEO XIII.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

<i>Anglo-Saxon Kings.</i>			
A. D.		A. D.	
827	EGBERT.	1272	EDWARD I.
838	ETHELWOLF.	1307	EDWARD II.
857	ETHELBALD.	1327	EDWARD III.
860	ETHELBERT.	1377	RICHARD II.
866	ETHELRED I.	1399	HENRY IV. } House of Lancaster.
871	ALFRED THE GREAT.	1413	HENRY V. }
901	EDWARD THE ELDER.	1422	HENRY VI. }
925	ATHELSTAN.	1461	EDWARD IV. } House of York.
940	EDMUND I.	1483	EDWARD V. }
946	EDRED.	1483	RICHARD III. }
955	EDWY.		<i>The Tudors.</i>
959	EDGAR.	1485	HENRY VII.
975	EDWARD THE MARTYR.	1509	HENRY VIII.
978	ETHELRED II.	1547	EDWARD VI.
1016	EDMUND IRONSIDE.	1553	MARY I.
		1558	ELIZABETH.
<i>Danish Kings.</i>		<i>The Stuarts.—Kings of England and Scotland.</i>	
1017	CANUTE THE GREAT (of Denmark).	1603	JAMES I. (James VI. of Scotland).
1036	HAROLD HAREFOOT.	1625	CHARLES I. (beheaded 1649).
1039	HARDICANUTE (of Denmark).	1649	THE COMMONWEALTH (Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector, 1653; Richard Cromwell, 1658).
<i>Saxon Kings.</i>		1660	CHARLES II.
1041	EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.	1685	JAMES II. (James VII. of Scotland), deposed 1688.
1066	HAROLD.	1689	WILLIAM III. and MARY II. (William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic).
<i>Norman Kings.</i>		1702	ANNE (England and Scotland united in 1707).
1066	WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR (Duke of Normandy).		<i>House of Brunswick.—Kings of Great Britain.</i>
1087	WILLIAM RUFUS.	1714	GEORGE I. } Electors of Hanover.
1100	HENRY I. (Beauclerc).	1727	GEORGE II. }
1135	STEPHEN (Count of Blois).	1760	GEORGE III. }
		1820	GEORGE IV. } Kings of Hanover
		1830	WILLIAM IV. }
<i>The Plantagenets.</i>		1837	VICTORIA. ("Empress of India").
1154	HENRY II. (Earl of Anjou).		
1189	RICHARD THE LION-HEARTED.		
1199	JOHN.		
1216	HENRY III.		

KINGS AND QUEENS OF SCOTLAND.

<i>Dynasty of Kenneth.</i>			
A. D.		A. D.	
843	KENNETH MACALPINE (first King of all Scotland).	961	DUFF.
854	DONALD V.	965	CULLEN.
858	CONSTANTINE II.	970	KENNETH III.
874	ETHUS.	994	CONSTANTINE IV.
876	GREGORY THE GREAT.	995	KENNETH THE GRIM.
893	DONALD VI.	1003	MALCOLM II.
904	CONSTANTINE III.	1033	DUNCAN I.
944	MALCOLM I.	1039	MACBETH.
953	INDUFF.	1057	MALCOLM III., CANMORE.
		1093	DONALD VII., or DONALD BANE (deposed).

A. D. 1094	DUNCAN II.	A. D. 1329	DAVID BRUCE (driven away).
1094	DONALD VII. (restored and deposed).	1332	EDWARD BALIOL.
1098	EDGAR.	1342	DAVID BRUCE restored
1107	ALEXANDER I., THE FIERCE.		<i>House of Stuart.</i>
1124	DAVID I.	1371	ROBERT II.
1153	MALCOLM IV.	1390	ROBERT III.
1165	WILLIAM THE LION.	1406	An Interregnum.
1214	ALEXANDER II.	1424	JAMES I. (murdered).
1249	ALEXANDER III.	1437	JAMES II.
1285	MARGARET (the "Maid of Norway").	1460	JAMES III. (murdered).
	<i>Houses of Baliol and Bruce.</i>	1488	JAMES IV. (killed at Flodden).
1292	JOHN BALIOL (deposed by Edward I. of England).	1513	JAMES V.
1296	EDWARD I. of England.	1542	MARY (beheaded in England in 1587).
1306	ROBERT BRUCE.	1567	JAMES VI. (became James I. of England in 1603).

KINGS AND EMPERORS OF FRANCE.

	<i>Merovingian Kings.</i>	A. D. 887	HUGH, or EUDES, Count of Paris.
A. D. 481	CLOVIS.	898	CHARLES THE SIMPLE.
511	CHILDEBERT I. } CLODIMIR. } THIERRY I. } CLOTAIRE I. }	922	ROBERT.
		923	RAOUL, or RUDOLF.
		936	LOUIS IV., d'OUTREMER.
		954	LOTHAIRE.
534	THEODEBERT I.	986	LOUIS V., THE SLUGGARD (deposed in 987 by Hugh Capet)
548	THEODEBALD.		<i>House of Capet.</i>
558	CLOTAIRE I. sole king.	987	HUGH CAPET.
561	CHARIBERT. } GONTRAM. } SIGEBERT I. } CHILPERIC I. }	997	ROBERT THE PIOUS.
		1031	HENRY I.
		1060	PHILIP I.
575	CHILDEBERT II.	1108	LOUIS VI., THE FAT.
584	CLOTAIRE II.	1137	LOUIS VII.
596	THIERRY II. } THEODEBERT II. }	1180	PHILIP AUGUSTUS.
		1223	LOUIS VIII., THE LION.
613	CLOTAIRE II. sole king.	1226	LOUIS IX., or St. Louis.
628	DAGOBERT I., THE GREAT.	1270	PHILIP THE HARDY.
638	CLOVIS II. } SIGEBERT II. }	1285	PHILIP THE FAIR.
		1314	LOUIS X.
656	CLOTAIRE III.	1316	PHILIP THE TALL.
670	CHILDERIC II.	1321	CHARLES THE FAIR.
670	THIERRY III.		<i>House of Valois.</i>
674	DAGOBERT II.	1328	PHILIP OF VALOIS.
691	CLOVIS III.	1350	JOHN THE GOOD.
695	CHILDEBERT III., } THE JUST. }	1364	CHARLES V., THE WISE.
		1380	CHARLES VI.
711	DAGOBERT III.	1422	CHARLES VII., THE VICTORIOUS.
715	CHILPERIC II. } (deposed). }	1461	LOUIS XI.
		1483	CHARLES VIII., THE AFFABLE AND COURTEOUS.
717	CLOTAIRE IV.	1498	LOUIS XII., THE FATHER OF HIS PEOPLE.
720	CHILPERIC II. } restored. }	1515	FRANCIS I.
		1547	HENRY II.
720	THIERRY IV.	1559	FRANCIS II.
737	An Interregnum.	1560	CHARLES IX.
742	CHILDERIC III., the Stupid, (deposed in 751 by Pepin the Little, son of Charles Martel).	1574	HENRY III.
	<i>Carlovingian Kings.</i>		<i>House of Bourbon.</i>
751	PEPIN THE LITTLE (son of Charles Martel).	1589	HENRY IV. (Henry III. of Navarre).
768	CHARLEMAGNE, or CHARLES THE GREAT (and CARLOMAN until 771).	1610	LOUIS XIII.
814	LOUIS LE DEBONNAIRE.	1643	LOUIS XIV.
840	CHARLES THE BALD.	1715	LOUIS XV.
877	LOUIS II., THE STAMMERER.	1774	LOUIS XVI. (beheaded 1793).
879	LOUIS III. and CARLOMAN II.)		<i>The First Republic.</i>
884	CHARLES III. (usurper).	1792	NATIONAL CONVENTION.
		1795	DIRECTORY.
		1799	NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, First Consul.

<i>The First Empire.</i>		<i>Second Republic.</i>	
A. D. 1804	NAPOLEON I. (Bonaparte).	A. D. 1848	LOUIS NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, President.
<i>The First Bourbon Restoration.</i>		<i>Second Empire.</i>	
1814	LOUIS XVIII.	1852	NAPOLEON III. (Louis Napoleon).
<i>The Hundred Days.</i>		<i>Third Republic.</i>	
1815	NAPOLEON I. restored.	1870	Provisional Government.
<i>The Second Bourbon Restoration.</i>		1871	LOUIS ADOLPHE THIERS, President.
1815	LOUIS XVIII. restored.	1873	MAURICE MACMAHON, "
1824	CHARLES X.	1879	JULES GREVY, "
<i>House of Orleans.</i>		1888	SADI CARNOT, "
1830	LOUIS PHILIPPE.	1894	CASIMIR PERIER.
		1895	FELIX FAURE.

GERMAN KINGS AND EMPERORS.

<i>Carlovingians.</i>		<i>Austrian House of Hapsburg.</i>	
A. D. 800	CHARLEMAGNE.	A. D. 1313	LOUIS of Bavaria and FREDERICK THE FAIR of Austria.
814	LOUIS LE DEBONNAIRE.	1330	LOUIS of Bavaria alone.
840	LOTHAIRE.	1347	CHARLES IV. } Kings of Bohemia.
855	LOUIS THE GERMAN.	1378	WENCESLAS. }
875	CHARLES THE BALD (King of France).	1400	RUPERT of the Palatinate.
877	An Interregnum	1410	SIGISMUND (King of Hungary and Bohemia).
880	CHARLES THE FAT (deposed).	<i>House of Hapsburg.</i>	
887	ARNULF.	1438	ALBERT II., of Austria.
898	LOUIS THE BLIND.	1440	FREDERICK III.
898	LOUIS THE CHILD (deposed).	1493	MAXIMILIAN I. (first Archduke of Austria)
<i>House of Franconia.</i>		1519	CHARLES V. (Charles I. of Spain).
911	CONRAD I.	1556	FERDINAND I. }
<i>House of Saxony</i>		1564	MAXIMILIAN II. }
919	HENRY THE FOWLER.	1576	RUDOLF II. }
936	OTHO THE GREAT.	1612	MATTHIAS. }
973	OTHO II.	1619	FERDINAND II. }
983	OTHO III.	1637	FERDINAND III. }
1002	HENRY II., THE SAINT (of Bavaria).	1657	LEOPOLD I. }
<i>House of Franconia.</i>		1705	JOSEPH I. }
1024	CONRAD II.	1711	CHARLES VI. }
1039	HENRY III.	1740	An Interregnum.
1056	HENRY IV.	<i>House of Bavaria.</i>	
1106	HENRY V.	1741	CHARLES VII.
<i>House of Saxony</i>		<i>Austrian House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.</i>	
1125	LOTHAIRE.	1745	FRANCIS I. }
<i>The Hohenstaufen.</i>		1765	JOSEPH II. }
1138	CONRAD III.	1790	LEOPOLD II. }
1152	FREDERICK BARBAROSSA.	1792	FRANCIS II. (until 1806). }
1190	HENRY VI.	1806	Confederation of the Rhine.
1197	OTHO IV. and PHILIP of Swabia	1815	Germanic Confederation
1218	FREDERICK II.	1867	North German Confederation.
1250	An Interregnum of 23 years.	<i>House of Hohenzollern.</i>	
<i>Different Dynasties</i>		1871	WILLIAM I. }
1273	RUDOLF of Hapsburg	1888	FREDERICK. }
1291	ADOLF of Nassau.	1888	WILLIAM II. }
1298	ALBERT I. of Austria (Hapsburg).		
1308	HENRY VII. (of the House of Luxemburg).		

DUKES, ARCHDUKES AND EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

<i>Margraves of Austria.</i>			
A. D. 928	LEOPOLD I., THE ILLUSTRIOUS.	A. D. 1056	ERNEST THE VALIANT.
973	HENRY I., THE REBEL.	1075	LEOPOLD II., THE BEAUTIFUL.
1018	ALBERT I., THE VICTORIOUS.	1096	LEOPOLD III.
		1136	ALBERT II.

A. D. 1136	LEOPOLD IV., THE SAINT.	A. D. 1457	FREDERICK IV. (Frederick III. of Germany), and ALBERT VI.
1140	LEOPOLD V., THE LIBERAL.		<i>Austrian Archdukes—House of Hapsburg.</i>
1142	HENRY II.		
	<i>Dukes of Austria.</i>		
1156	HENRY II. (as Duke).	1493	MAXIMILIAN I. (German Emperor).
1177	LEOPOLD VI., THE VIRTUOUS.	1519	CHARLES I. (Emperor Charles V. of Germany).
1194	FREDERICK I., THE CATHOLIC.	1521	FERDINAND I. } Emperors of Ger-
1198	LEOPOLD VII., THE GLORIOUS.	1664	MAXIMILIAN II. } many.
1230	FREDERICK II., THE WARLIKE.	1576	RUDOLF I. (Emperor Rudolf II)
1246	An Interregnum.	1608	MATTHIAS.
	<i>Austrian Dukes—House of Hapsburg.</i>	1619	FERDINAND II. } Emperors of Ger-
1278	RUDOLF I. (of Hapsburg).	1637	FERDINAND III. } many.
1282	ALBERT I.	1657	LEOPOLD I.
1305	RUDOLF II.	1705	JOSEPH I.
1308	FREDERICK III., THE FAIR. and LEOPOLD I.	1711	CHARLES II. (Emperor Charles VI. of Germany).
1326	FREDERICK III. alone.	1740	MARIA THERESA.
1330	ALBERT I. THE WISE, and OTHO.	1780	JOSEPH II. } Emperors of Ger-
1339	ALBERT II. alone.	1790	LEOPOLD II. } many.
1358	RUDOLF III.	1792	FRANCIS I. (Francis II. of Germany).
1365	ALBERT III. and LEOPOLD III.		<i>Emperors of Austria—House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.</i>
1386	An Interregnum.	1804	FRANCIS I. (Francis II. of Germany from 1792 to 1806).
1395	WILLIAM I. and his brothers and cousin ALBERT IV., THE WONDER	1835	FERDINAND I.
1411	ALBERT V., THE SEVERE.	1848	FRANCIS JOSEPH.
1437	ALBERT VI. (Emperor Albert II. of Germany).		
1439	LADISLAS.		

ELECTORS OF BRANDENBURG, DUKES AND KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

	<i>Margraves of Brandenburg.</i>	A. D. 1499	JOACHIM I.
A. D. 1134	ALBERT I., THE BEAR.	1535	JOACHIM II.
1170	OTHO I.	1571	JOHN GEORGE.
1184	OTHO II.	1598	JOACHIM FREDERICK.
1206	ALBERT II.	1608	JOHN SIGISMUND.
1221	JOHN I. and OTHO III		<i>Electors of Brandenburg and Dukes of Prussia—House of Hohenzollern.</i>
1266	JOHN II.	1618	JOHN SIGISMUND.
1282	OTHO IV.	1619	GEORGE WILLIAM.
1309	WALDEMAR.	1640	FREDERICK WILLIAM THE GREAT ELECTOR.
1319	HENRY I., THE YOUNG.	1688	FREDERICK III.
1320	An Interregnum.		<i>Kings of Prussia—House of Hohenzollern.</i>
1323	LOUIS I., of Bavaria.	1701	FREDERICK I. (Elector Frederick III).
1352	LOUIS II., THE ROMAN.	1713	FREDERICK WILLIAM I.
1365	OTHO V., THE SLUGGARD.	1740	FREDERICK II., THE GREAT.
1373	WENCESLAS of Bohemia.	1786	FREDERICK WILLIAM II.
1378	SIGISMUND of Bohemia (deposed).	1797	FREDERICK WILLIAM III.
1388	JOSSUS THE BEARDED	1840	FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.
1411	SIGISMUND restored.	1861	WILLIAM I. (became Emperor of Germany in 1871).
	<i>House of Hohenzollern.</i>	1888	FREDERICK III.
1415	FREDERICK I.	1888	WILLIAM II.
1440	FREDERICK II., IRONSIDE.		
1470	ALBERT III., the German Achilles.		
	<i>Electors of Brandenburg—House of Hohenzollern</i>		
1476	JOHN III. (Elector in 1486).		

RUSSIAN GRAND-DUKES, CZARS AND EMPERORS.

	<i>Grand-Dukes of Kiev.</i>	A. D. 980	VLADIMIR THE GREAT.
A. D. 875	RURIC.	1015	SVIATOPOLEK I.
879	OLEG.	1018	JARASLAV, or JAROSLAF I.
913	IGOR I.	1054	ISIASLAV I.
945	OLGA (widow regent)	1073	SVIATOSLAV II.
955	SVIATOSLAV I.	1078	WSEWOLOD I.
973	JAROPOLK I.	1093	SVIATOPOLEK II.

A. D. 1113	VLADIMIR II.	A. D. 1425	VASIL, or BASIL IV.	
1125	MITISLAV.	1462	IVAN, or JOHN III., THE GREAT.	
1132	JAROPOLK II.	1505	VASIL, or BASIL V.	
1138	WIATSCHELAV.		<i>Czars of Moscow.</i>	
1139	WSEVOLOD II.	1533	IVAN, or JOHN IV., THE TERRIBLE.	
1146	ISIASLAV II. and IGOR II.	1588	FEODOR, or THEODORE I.	
1153	ROSTISLAV.	1598	DEMETRI.	
1149	JURIE, or GEORGE I.	1598	BORIS GODONOFF.	
	<i>Grand-Dukes of Vladimir.</i>	1605	FEODOR, or THEODORE II.	
1157	ANDREW I. }	1606	DEMETRI (impostor).	
1175	MICHAEL I. }	1606	VASIL ZOUINSKI.	
1177	WSEVOLOD III.	1610	LADISLAS VII. of Poland.	
1213	JURIE, or GEORGE II. }		<i>Russian Czars, Emperors and Em-</i>	
1217	CONSTANTINE.		<i>presses of the House of Romanoff.</i>	
1238	JARASLAV II.	1613	MICHAEL ROMANOFF.	
1245	ALEXANDER NEVSKI.	1645	ALEXIS.	
1263	JARASLAV III.	1676	FEODOR.	
1270	VASIL, or BASIL I.	1682	IVAN V. and PETER I.	
1275	DEMETRI I.	1689	PETER I., THE GREAT,	
1281	ANDREW II.		alone.	
1294	DANIEL ALEXANDROVITSCH.	1725	CATHARINE I.	
1303	JURIE, or GEORGE III. (deposed).	1727	PETER II.	
1305	MICHAEL III.	1730	ANNA.	
1320	VASIL, or BASIL II.	1740	IVAN VI.	
1325	JURIE, or GEORGE III. restored.	1741	ELIZABETH.	
1327	ALEXANDER II.	1762	PETER III.	
	<i>Grand Dukes of Moscow.</i>	1762	CATHARINE II.	
1328	IVAN, or JOHN I.	1796	PAUL.	
1340	SIMEON THE PROUD.	1801	ALEXANDER I.	
1353	IVAN, or JOHN II.	1825	NICHOLAS I.	
1359	DEMETRI II. (Prince of Susdal).	1855	ALEXANDER II.	
1362	DEMETRI III. (Dunskoi).	1881	ALEXANDER III.	
1389	VASIL, or BASIL III. (Temnoi).	1894	NICHOLAS II.	
				Emperors and Empresses.

DUKES OF SAVOY, KINGS OF SARDINIA, AND KINGS OF ITALY.

	<i>Dukes of Savoy.</i>		<i>Kings of Sardinia and Dukes of Savoy.</i>
A. D. 1416	AMADPUS VIII., THE PACIFIC.	A. D. 1720	VICTOR AMADEUS II.
1440	LUDOVIC.	1730	CHARLES EMMANUEL III.
1465	AMADEUS IX., THE SAINT.	1773	VICTOR AMADEUS III.
1472	PHILIBERT I., THE HUNTER.	1796	CHARLES EMMANUEL IV.
1482	CHARLES I., THE WARLIKE.		<i>Kings of Sardinia—House of Savoy.</i>
1489	CHARLES II.	1802	VICTOR EMMANUEL I.
1496	PHILIP LACKLAND.	1821	CHARLES FELIX.
1497	PHILIBERT II., THE FAIR.	1831	CHARLES ALBERT.
1504	CHARLES III., THE GOOD.	1849	VICTOR EMMANUEL II.
1553	EMMANUEL PHILIBERT, IRON HAND.		<i>Kings of Italy—House of Savoy.</i>
1580	CHARLES EMMANUEL I., THE GREAT	1861	VICTOR EMMANUEL II.
1630	VICTOR AMADEUS I.	1878	HUMBERT.
1637	FRANCIS HYACINTHUS.		
1638	CHARLES EMMANUEL II.		
1675	VICTOR AMADEUS II.		

KINGS OF NAPLES AND SICILY.

	<i>Norman Dynasty.</i>		<i>House of Anjou.</i>
A. D. 1131	ROGER I.	A. D. 1266	CHARLES of Anjou.
1154	WILLIAM I., THE BAD.		<i>Kings of Naples—House of Anjou.</i>
1166	WILLIAM II., THE GOOD.	1282	CHARLES I. of Anjou.
1189	TANCRED.	1285	CHARLES II.
1194	WILLIAM III.	1309	ROBERT THE WISE.
	<i>Hohenstaufen Dynasty.</i>	1343	JOANNA I.
1197	EMPEROR FREDERICK II., of Ger-	1382	CHARLES III.
	many.	1382	LOUIS I.
1250	CONRAD.	1385	LOUIS II.
1254	CONRADIN	1386	LADISLAS of Hungary.
1258	MANFRED.	1414	JOANNA II. (to 1435).

<i>Kings of Sicily—House of Aragon.</i>		A. D.	1556	PHILIP I. (II. of Spain).
A. D.	1282	PETER I. (III. of Aragon).	1598	PHILIP II. (III. of Spain).
	1285	JAMES I. (II. of Aragon).	1621	PHILIP III. (IV. of Spain).
	1295	FREDERICK II.	1666	CHARLES II. (of Spain).
	1337	PETER II.	1700	PHILIP IV. (V. of Spain).
	1342	LOUIS.	1707	CHARLES III. of Austria (VI. of Ger- many).
	1355	FREDERICK III.		<i>King of Naples.</i>
	1376	MARIA and MARTIN.	1713	CHARLES III. of Austria.
	1402	MARTIN I.		<i>King of Sicily.</i>
	1409	MARTIN II.	1713	VICTOR AMADEUS of Savoy.
	1410	FERDINAND I.		<i>Kings of Naples and Sicily.</i>
	1416	ALFONSO I. (to 1435).	1720	CHARLES III. of Austria.
		<i>King of Naples and Sicily—House of Aragon.</i>	1735	CHARLES IV. (III. of Spain).
	1435	ALFONSO I. (to 1458).	1759	FERDINAND IV.
		<i>Kings of Naples—House of Aragon.</i>		<i>Kings of Naples.</i>
	1458	FERDINAND I.	1806	JOSEPH BONAPARTE,
	1494	ALFONSO II.	1808	JOACHIM MURAT.
	1495	FERDINAND II.		<i>King of Sicily.</i>
	1496	FREDERICK II. (to 1501).	1806	FERDINAND IV. (to 1815).
		<i>Kings of Sicily—House of Aragon.</i>		<i>Kings of Naples and Sicily.</i>
	1458	JOHN of Aragon.	1815	FERDINAND IV. restored.
	1479	FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC (to 1503).	1825	FRANCIS I.
		<i>Naples and Sicily under the Kings of Spain.</i>	1830	FERDINAND V.
	1503	FERDINAND III. (V. of Spain).	1859	FRANCIS II. (Kingdom annexed to Italy, 1861).
	1516	CHARLES I. (of Spain and V. of Ger- many).		

KINGS OF HUNGARY.

<i>Dynasty of Arpad.</i>		A. D.	1444	An Interregnum.
A. D.	1000	STEPHEN THE PIUS.	1445	JOHN HUNNYADES (regent).
	1038	PETER THE GERMAN (deposed).	1458	LADISLAS V.
	1041	ABA, or OWEN.	1458	MATTHIAS CORVINUS.
	1044	PETER THE GERMAN restored.	1490	LADISLAS VI. (King of Poland).
	1047	ANDREW I.	1516	LOUIS II.
	1061	BELA I.	1526	JOHN ZAPOLYA.
	1064	SALAMON.		<i>Austrian House of Hapsburg.</i>
	1075	GEISA I.	1526	FERDINAND I. (Archduke of Austria, and Emperor of Germany, 1556– 1564).
	1077	LADISLAS I., THE PIOUS.	1563	MAXIMILIAN (Maximilian II., Arch- duke of Austria and Emperor of Germany).
	1095	COLOMON.	1572	RUDOLF (Archduke of Austria and Emperor Rudolf II. of Germany).
	1114	STEPHEN II., THUNDER.	1608	MATTHIAS II. (Matthias, Archduke of Austria and Emperor of Ger- many).
	1131	BELA II.	1618	FERDINAND II. } Archdukes of Aus-
	1141	GEISA II.	1625	FERDINAND III. } tria and Emperors of Germany.
	1161	STEPHEN III.	1647	FERDINAND IV.
	1173	BELA III.	1655	LEOPOLD I. } Archdukes of Austria
	1196	EMMERIC.	1687	JOSEPH I. } and Emperors of Ger- many.
	1204	LADISLAS II.	1711	CHARLES III. (Archduke Charles of Austria, and Emperor Charles VI. of Germany).
	1205	ANDREW II.	1740	MARIA THERESA (Archduchess of Austria and wife of Emperor Fran- cis I. of Germany).
	1235	BELA IV.	1780	JOSEPH II. } Archdukes of Aus-
	1270	STEPHEN IV.	1790	LEOPOLD II. } tria and Emperors of Germany.
	1272	LADISLAS III.		
	1290	ANDREW III.		
		<i>Eleotive Kings of Different Dynasties.</i>		
	1301	WENCESLAS of Bohemia.		
	1309	CHARLES ROBERT of Anjou.		
	1342	LOUIS THE GREAT (of Anjou, also King of Poland, 1370–1382).		
	1382	MARY ("King Mary").		
	1385	CHARLES DURAZZO.		
	1387	SIGISMUND (King of Bohemia and Emperor of Germany).		
	1437	ALBERT of Austria (Emperor Albert I. of Germany).		
	1439	ELIZABETH.		
	1440	LADISLAS IV. (King of Poland).		

A. D. 1792	FRANCIS I. (Archduke Francis of Austria to 1804, and Emperor Francis II. of Germany to 1806, and Emperor Francis I. of Austria, 1804-1835).	A. D. 1835	FERDINAND V. (Emperor Ferdinand I. of Austria).
		1848	FRANCIS JOSEPH (Emperor of Austria).

KINGS OF POLAND.

<i>Dynasty of Piast.</i>			
A. D. 1000	BOLESŁAS I.	A. D. 1384	LADISŁAS V. (Jagello).
1025	MICISŁAS II.	1434	LADISŁAS VI.
1034	RICHSA, queen-regent.	1444	CASIMIR IV. } The Jagellos.
1037	An Interregnum.	1492	JOHN ALBERT.
1041	CASIMIR I.	1501	ALEXANDER.
1058	BOLESŁAS II., THE INTREPID	1506	SIGISMUND I., THE GREAT.
1081	LADISŁAS I., THE CARELESS.	1548	SIGISMUND II.
1102	BOLESŁAS III., WRY-MOUTH.	1572	An Interregnum.
1138	LADISŁAS II.	1573	HENRY of Valois (afterward Henry III. of France).
1146	BOLESŁAS IV., THE CURLED.	1575	STEPHEN BATHORI.
1173	MICISŁAS III., THE OLD (deposed).	1586	An Interregnum
1177	CASIMIR II., THE JUST.	1587	SIGISMUND III.
1194	LESKO V., THE WHITE (deposed).	1632	LADISŁAS VII.
1200	MICISŁAS III. restored	1648	JOHN CASIMIR.
1202	LADISŁAS III.	1668	An Interregnum
1206	LESKO THE WHITE restored.	1669	MICHAEL WIESNOWISKI.
1227	BOLESŁAS V., THE CHASTE.	1674	JOHN SOBIESKI
1279	LESKO VI., THE BLACK.	1696	An Interregnum.
1289	An Interregnum.	1697	FREDERICK AUGUSTUS I (Elector of Saxony).
1295	PREMISŁAS.	1704	STANISŁAS LECZINSKI.
1304	LADISŁAS IV., THE SHORT.	1709	FREDERICK AUGUSTUS I. restored.
1333	CASIMIR III., THE GREAT.	1733	FREDERICK AUGUSTUS II. (Elector of Saxony).
	<i>Elective Kings of Different Dynasties.</i>	1763	An Interregnum.
1370	LOUIS THE GREAT (King of Hungary).	1764	STANISŁAS PONIATOWSKI (deposed in 1795, when Poland's independence ended).
1382	MARIA.		

KINGS OF DENMARK.

<i>Dynasty of Skiold.</i>			
A. D. 875	GORM THE OLD.	A. D. 1334	An Interregnum.
941	HARALD BLUETOOTH.	1340	WALDEMAR III.
991	SWEYN I	1375	An Interregnum.
1014	CANUTE THE GREAT (conqueror of England, Sweden and Norway).	1376	OLAF V.
1035	HARDICANUTE.	1387	MARGARET.
1042	MAGNUS THE GOOD, of Norway.	1397	MARGARET and ERIC VII. (Eric XIII. of Sweden).
1047	SWEYN II.	1412	ERIC VII. alone.
1073	An Interregnum.	1438	An Interregnum.
1076	HARALD THE SIMPLE.	1440	CHRISTOPHER III. of Sweden.
1080	CANUTE IV.		<i>House of Oldenberg.</i>
1086	OLAF THE HUNGRY.	1448	CHRISTIAN I.
1095	ERIC THE GOOD.	1481	JOHN.
1103	An Interregnum	1513	CHRISTIAN II.
1105	NICHOLAS I	1523	FREDERICK I.
1135	ERIC HAREFOOT	1533	CHRISTIAN III.
1137	ERIC THE LAMB.	1559	FREDERICK II.
1147	SWEYN III. and CANUTE V.	1588	CHRISTIAN IV.
1154	SWEYN III. alone.	1648	FREDERICK III.
1157	WALDEMAR THE GREAT.	1670	CHRISTIAN V.
1182	CANUTE THE PIOUS.	1699	FREDERICK IV.
1202	WALDEMAR THE CONQUEROR.	1730	CHRISTIAN VI.
1241	ERIC IV	1746	FREDERICK V.
1250	ABEL.	1766	CHRISTIAN VII.
1252	CHRISTOPHER I.	1808	FREDERICK VI.
1259	ERIC V.	1839	CHRISTIAN VIII.
1236	ERIC VI.	1848	FREDERICK VII.
1320	CHRISTOPHER II.	1863	CHRISTIAN IX.

SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS.

KINGS OF NORWAY.

A. D. 875	HARALD FAIRHAIR (Harfager).	A. D. 1136	INGE I., EYSTEIN III., HAKO III., and MAGNUS V.
934	ERIC I.	1162	MAGNUS V. alone.
940	HAKO THE GOOD.	1186	SWERRO.
963	HARALD GRAAFELD.	1202	HAKO III.
977	HAKO JARL.	1204	GUTHRUM.
995	OLAF TRYGVÆSON.	1205	INGE II.
1015	OLAF THE SAINT.	1207	HAKO IV.
1028	CANUTE THE GREAT of Denmark.	1280	MAGNUS VI.
1036	MAGNUS THE BASTARD.	1286	ERIC II.
1047	HARALD HARDRADA.	1299	HAKO V.
1066	OLAF III. and MAGNUS II.	1319	MAGNUS VII. (Magnus III. of Sweden).
1069	OLAF III. alone.	1343	HAKO VI.
1093	MAGNUS BAREFOOT.	1380	OLAF V. (Olaf II. of Denmark).
1103	SIGURD I., EYSTEIN II. and OLAF IV.	1397	Norway united to Denmark by the Union of Calmar.
1122	SIGURD I. alone.		
1130	MAGNUS IV. and HARALD IV.		
1136	SIGURD II.		

KINGS OF SWEDEN.

A. D. 1000	OLAF SKOTKONUNG.	A. D. 1471	An Interregnum.
1026	EDMUND COLBRENNER.	1483	JOHN II. (John I. of Denmark)
1051	EDMUND SLEMME.	1502	An Interregnum.
1056	STENKIL.	1503	STENO STURE I.
1066	HALSTAN.	1512	STENO STURE II.
1090	INGO I., THE GREAT.	1520	CHRISTIAN II. of Denmark.
1112	PHILIP.		<i>House of Vasa.</i>
1118	INGO II.	1523	GUSTAVUS VASA.
1129	SWERKER I.	1560	ERIC XIV.
1155	ERIC IX., THE PIOUS.	1569	JOHN III.
1161	CHARLES VII.	1592	SIGISMUND.
1167	CANUTE.	1599	CHARLES IX.
1199	SWERKER II.	1611	GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.
1210	ERIC X.	1632	CHRISTINA (abdicated).
1216	JOHN I.	1654	CHARLES X.
1222	ERIC XI., THE STAMMER	1660	CHARLES XI.
1250	BERGER JARL, regent.	1697	CHARLES XII.
1250	WALDEMAR I.	1718	ULRICA ELEANORA.
1275	MAGNUS I.	1721	FREDERICK of Hesse Cassel.
1290	BERGER II.	1751	ADOLPHUS FREDERICK.
1319	MAGNUS SMÆK (deposed).	1771	GUSTAVUS III. (murdered).
1350	ERIC XII.	1792	GUSTAVUS IV. (deposed).
1359	MAGNUS SMÆK restored.	1809	CHARLES XIII.
1363	ALBERT of Mecklenburg.		<i>Kings of Sweden and Norway—House of Bernadotte.</i>
1397	Sweden united with Denmark by the Union of Calmar.	1818	CHARLES XIV.
1412	ERIC XIII.	1844	OSCAR I.
1440	CHRISTOPHER.	1859	CHARLES XV.
1448	CHARLES III.	1872	OSCAR II.

KINGS OF PORTUGAL.

	<i>House of Burgundy.</i>	A. D. 1481	JOHN II., THE PERFECT.
A. D. 1139	ALFONSO I. (Son of Henry of Burgundy).	1495	MANUEL THE GREAT.
1185	SANCHO I.	1521	JOHN III., THE GREAT.
1212	ALFONSO II., THE FAT.	1557	SEBASTIAN.
1223	SANCHO II., THE IDLE.	1578	HENRY.
1248	ALFONSO III.	1580	ANTONIO.
1279	DENIS (the "Father of his Country").	1580	Portugal united with Spain for sixty years.
1325	ALFONSO IV., THE BRAVE.		<i>House of Braganza.</i>
1357	PEDRO THE SEVERE.	1640	JOHN IV.
1367	FERDINAND I.	1656	ALFONSO VI.
1385	JOHN I., THE BASTARD.	1683	PEDRO II.
1433	DUARTE (Edward).	1706	JOHN V.
1438	ALFONSO V., THE AFRICAN.		

A. D. 1750	JOSEPH.	A. D. 1826	MARIA II.
1777	PEDRO III. and MARIA I.	1853	PEDRO V.
1786	MARIA I., alone.	1861	LUIZ.
1816	JOHN VI.	1889	CHARLES.
1826	PEDRO IV.		

KINGS OF SPAIN.

A. D. 1479	<i>House of Trastamara.</i> FERDINAND and ISABELLA.	A. D. 1808	<i>House of Bonaparte.</i> JOSEPH BONAPARTE.
	<i>Austrian House of Hapsburg.</i>		<i>House of Bourbon.</i>
1516	CHARLES I. (Emperor Charles V. of Germany).	1813	FERDINAND VII.
1556	PHILIP II.	1833	ISABELLA II.
1598	PHILIP III.	1868	An Interregnum.
1621	PHILIP IV.		<i>House of Savoy.</i>
1665	CHARLES II.	1871	AMADEO.
	<i>House of Bourbon.</i>	1873	<i>Spanish Republic.</i>
1700	PHILIP V. (of Anjou).		<i>House of Bourbon.</i>
1746	FERDINAND VI.	1874	ALFONSO XII.
1759	CHARLES III.	1885	ALFONSO XIII.
1788	CHARLES IV.		

SULTANS OF TURKEY.

A. D. 1299	OTHMAN, OSMAN, or OTTOMAN.	A. D. 1623	AMURATH, or MURAD IV.
1326	ORCHAN.	1640	IBRAHIM (murdered).
1360	AMURATH or MURAD I. (murdered).	1649	MOHAMMED IV. (deposed).
1389	BAJAZET I. (died a prisoner).	1687	SOLYMAN III.
1403	SOLYMAN I. (dethroned).	1691	AHMED, or ACHMET II.
1410	MUSA-CHELEBI.	1695	MUSTAPHA II. (deposed).
1413	MOHAMMED I.	1703	AHMED, or ACHMET III. (deposed).
1421	AMURATH, or MURAD II.	1730	MAHMOUD I., or MOHAMMED V.
1451	MOHAMMED II.	1754	OTHMAN III.
1481	BAJAZET II.	1757	MUSTAPHA III.
1512	SELIM I.	1774	ABDUL-HAMID I.
1520	SOLYMAN II., THE MAGNIFICENT.	1789	SELIM III. (deposed and murdered).
1566	SELIM II.	1807	MUSTAPHA IV. (deposed and murdered).
1574	AMURATH, or MURAD III.	1808	MAHMOUD II., or MOHAMMED VI.
1595	MOHAMMED III.	1839	ABDUL-MEJID.
1603	AHMED, or ACHMET I.	1861	ABDUL-AZIZ (murdered).
1617	MUSTAPHA I. (deposed).	1876	AMURATH, or MURAD V. (deposed).
1618	OTHMAN II. (murdered).	1876	ABDUL-HAMID II.
1622	MUSTAPHA I. restored and murdered.		

DYNASTIES AND LATE EMPERORS OF CHINA.

B. C. 2207	<i>Ancient Dynasties.</i> HIA DYNASTY.	617	TANG DYNASTY.
1767	SHANG DYNASTY.	907	HEHU-U-TA DYNASTY.
1122	CHOW DYNASTY.	960	SONG DYNASTY.
256	TSIN DYNASTY.	1279	MOGUL KHANS.
207	HANG DYNASTY.	1368	MING DYNASTY.
	<i>The Three Kingdoms.</i>		<i>Ta-tsing, or Mantchoo-Tartar Dynasty.</i>
A. D. 220	SHOHANG DYNASTY (to 263).	1644	SHUN-CHI.
220	GOEI DYNASTY IN THE NORTH (to 265).	1662	KANG-HI.
220	EL DYNASTY IN THE SOUTH (to 280).	1722	YUNG-CHING.
	<i>Mediæval Dynasties.</i>	1735	KIEN-LUNG.
265	TSIN DYNASTY.	1795	KIA-KING.
420	U-TA DYNASTY.	1820	TAOU-KWANG.
589	SUI DYNASTY.	1850	HIEN-FUNG.
		1862	YUNG-CHI.
		1875	KWANG-LIU.

SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS.

MOGUL EMPERORS OF INDIA.

A. D. 1525	BABER.	A. D. 1712	FAROKHSIR.
1530	HUMAYAN.	1719	MOHAMMED SHAH.
1556	AKBAR.	1748	AHMED SHAH.
1605	JEHANGHIRE.	1754	ALAMGIR.
1627	SHAH JEHAN I.	1756	SHAH JEHAN II.
1659	AURUNGZEBE.	1761	SHAH ALUM (the empire ended in 1761).
1707	BAHADUR SHAH.		

SHAHS OF MODERN PERSIA.

<i>Suffean Dynasty.</i>		A. D. 1732	ABBAS III.
A. D. 1501	ISMAEL I.	1736	NADIR SHAH (Kouli Khan), murdered.
1523	TAMASP I.		
1576	ISMAEL II.	1747	SHAH ROKH.
1577	MOHAMMED MEERZA.	1751	An Interregum.
1582	ABBAS THE GREAT.	1759	KUREEM KHAN.
1628	SHAH SOPHI I.	1779	Rival Shahs and assassinations till 1795.
1641	ABBAS II.		
1666	SHAH SOPHI II.		
1694	HUSSEIN (deposed).		
<i>Different Dynasties.</i>			<i>Turcoman Dynasty.</i>
1722	MAHMOUD (Afghan chief).	1795	AGA-MOHAMMED KHAN (murdered 1797).
1725	ASHARF (usurper).	1798	FUTTEH ALI-SHAH.
1730	TAMASP II.	1834	MOHAMMED SHAH.
		1848	NASR-UL-DEEN, OR NASSR-ED-DEEN.

KINGS OF BAVARIA.

A. D. 1805	MAXIMILIAN JOSEPH I.	A. D. 1864	LOUIS II. (drowned himself).
1825	LOUIS I. (abdicated).	1886	OTHO
1848	MAXIMILIAN JOSEPH II.		

KINGS OF WURTEMBERG.

A. D. 1805	FREDERICK I.	A. D. 1864	CHARLES I.
1816	WILLIAM I.	1891	WILLIAM II.

KINGS OF HANOVER.

A. D. 1814	GEO. WILLIAM FREDERICK (George III. of England).	A. D. 1837	ERNEST AUGUSTUS (Duke of Cumberland).
1820	GEO. AUGUSTUS FREDERICK (George IV. of England).	1851	GEORGE V. (kingdom annexed to Prussia, 1866)
1830	WILLIAM HENRY (William IV. of England).		

KINGS OF SAXONY.

A. D. 1806	FREDERICK AUGUSTUS I.	A. D. 1836	FREDERICK AUGUSTUS II.
1827	ANTHONY CLEMENT.	1854	JOHN

KINGS OF HOLLAND.

<i>House of Bonaparte.</i>		<i>House of Orange, or Nassau.</i>	
A. D. 1806	LOUIS BONAPARTE (till 1810).	A. D. 1814	WILLIAM I.
1810	Holland annexed to the French Empire.	1840	WILLIAM II. (abdicated).
		1849	WILLIAM III.
		1890	WILHELMINA.

KINGS OF BELGIUM.

A. D. 1830	<i>House of Saxe-Coburg.</i> LEOPOLD I.	A. D. 1864	LEOPOLD II.
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KINGS OF GREECE.

A. D. 1833	<i>House of Bavaria.</i> OTHO (deposed 1862).	A. D. 1863	<i>House of Denmark.</i> GEORGE I.
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KINGS OF ITALY.

A. D. 1861	<i>House of Savoy.</i> VICTOR EMMANUEL (formerly King)	A. D. 1878	VICTOR EMMANUEL II. of Sardinia). HUMBERT.
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EMPERORS OF BRAZIL.

A. D. 1822	<i>House of Braganza.</i> DOM PEDRO I. (abdicated).	A. D. 1831 1889	DOM PEDRO II. (deposed). Brazil a Republic.
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KING OF SERVIA.

A. D. 1882	MILAN. (abdicated)	A. D. 1889	ALEXANDER.
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KING OF ROUMANIA.

A. D. 1881	<i>House of Hohenzollern.</i> CHARLES.		
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BRITISH GOVERNORS AND VICEROYS OF INDIA.

A. D.	<i>Governors-General.</i>	A. D.	SIR CHARLES THEOPHILUS METCALF.
1772	WARREN HASTINGS.	1835	
1785	SIR JOHN MCPHERSON.	1836	LORD AUCKLAND.
1786	LORD CORNWALLIS.	1842	LORD ELLENBOROUGH.
1793	SIR JOHN SHORE.	1844	WILLIAM WILBERFORCE BIRD.
1796	LORD CORNWALLIS.	1844	SIR HENRY HARDINGE.
1798	SIR ALURED CLARKE.	1848	LORD DALHOUSIE.
1798	LORD MORNINGTON.	1856	LORD CANNING.
1805	LORD CORNWALLIS.		<i>Viceroy.</i>
1805	SIR GEORGE HILARO BARLOW.	1858	LORD ELGIN.
1807	LORD MINTO.	1863	LORD LAWRENCE.
1813	MARQUIS OF HASTINGS.	1868	LORD MAYO (assassinated).
1823	HON. JOHN ADAM.	1872	LORD NORTHBROOK.
1823	RIGHT HON. GEORGE CANNING.	1876	LORD LYTTON.
1823	LORD AMHERST.	1881	MARQUIS OF RIPON.
1828	HON. WM. BUTTERWORTH BAYLEY.	1884	LORD DUFFERIN.
1828	LORD WM. CAVENDISH BENTINCK.	1888	LORD LANSDOWNE.
		1893	LORD ELGIN.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

A. D. 1789 1797 1801 1809 1817 1825	GEORGE WASHINGTON (of Virginia). JOHN ADAMS (of Massachusetts). THOMAS JEFFERSON (of Virginia). JAMES MADISON (of Virginia). JAMES MONROE (of Virginia). JOHN QUINCY ADAMS (of Massachusetts).	A. D. 1829 1837 1841 1841 1845 1849 1850	ANDREW JACKSON (of Tennessee). MARTIN VAN BUREN (of New York). WM. HENRY HARRISON (of Ohio). JOHN TYLER (of Virginia). JAMES KNOX POLK (of Tennessee). ZACHARY TAYLOR (of Louisiana). MILLARD FILLMORE (of New York).
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SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS.

A. D. 1853	FRANKLIN PIERCE (of New Hampshire).	A. D. 1877	RUTHERFORD BURCHARD HAYES (of Ohio).
1857	JAMES BUCHANAN (of Pennsylvania).	1881	JAMES ABRAHAM GARFIELD (of Ohio).
1861	ABRAHAM LINCOLN (of Illinois).	1881	CHESTER ALLAN ARTHUR (of New York).
1865	ANDREW JOHNSON (of Tennessee).	1885	GROVER CLEVELAND (of New York).
1869	ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT (of Illinois).	1889	BENJAMIN HARRISON (of Indiana).
		1893	GROVER CLEVELAND (of New York).

PASHAS AND KHEDIVES OF EGYPT.

A. D. 1805	MEHEMET ALI.	A. D. 1863	ISMAIL PASHA.	} Khedives.
1848	IBRAHIM PASHA.	1879	TEWFIK PASHA.	
1848	ABBAS PASHA.	1892	ABBAS PASHA.	
1854	SAID PASHA.			

EMPERORS AND PRESIDENTS OF MEXICO.

	<i>Emperor.</i>	A. D. 1848	HERRERA.
A. D. 1822	DON AUGUSTIN ITURBIDE (driven off in 1823 and shot in 1824).	1851	ARISTA.
	<i>Presidents.</i>	1853	SANTA ANNA.
1825	GUADALUPE VICTORIA.	1854	ALVAREZ.
1829	GUERRERO.	1856	COMONFORT.
1830	BUSTAMENTE.	1858	ZULOAGA.
1832	PEDRAZA.	1860	BENITO JUAREZ.
1833	ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA.		<i>Emperor and Presidents.</i>
1837	BUSTAMENTE.	1864	MAXIMILIAN of Austria, Emperor (deposed and shot in 1867).
1841	SANTA ANNA.	1864	BENITO JUAREZ, President.
1845	HERRERA.	1872	SEBASTIAN LERDO DE TEJADA.
1846	PAREDES.	1877	PORFIRIO DIAZ.
1846	SANTA ANNA.	1881	GONZALEZ.
		1885	PORFIRIO DIAZ.

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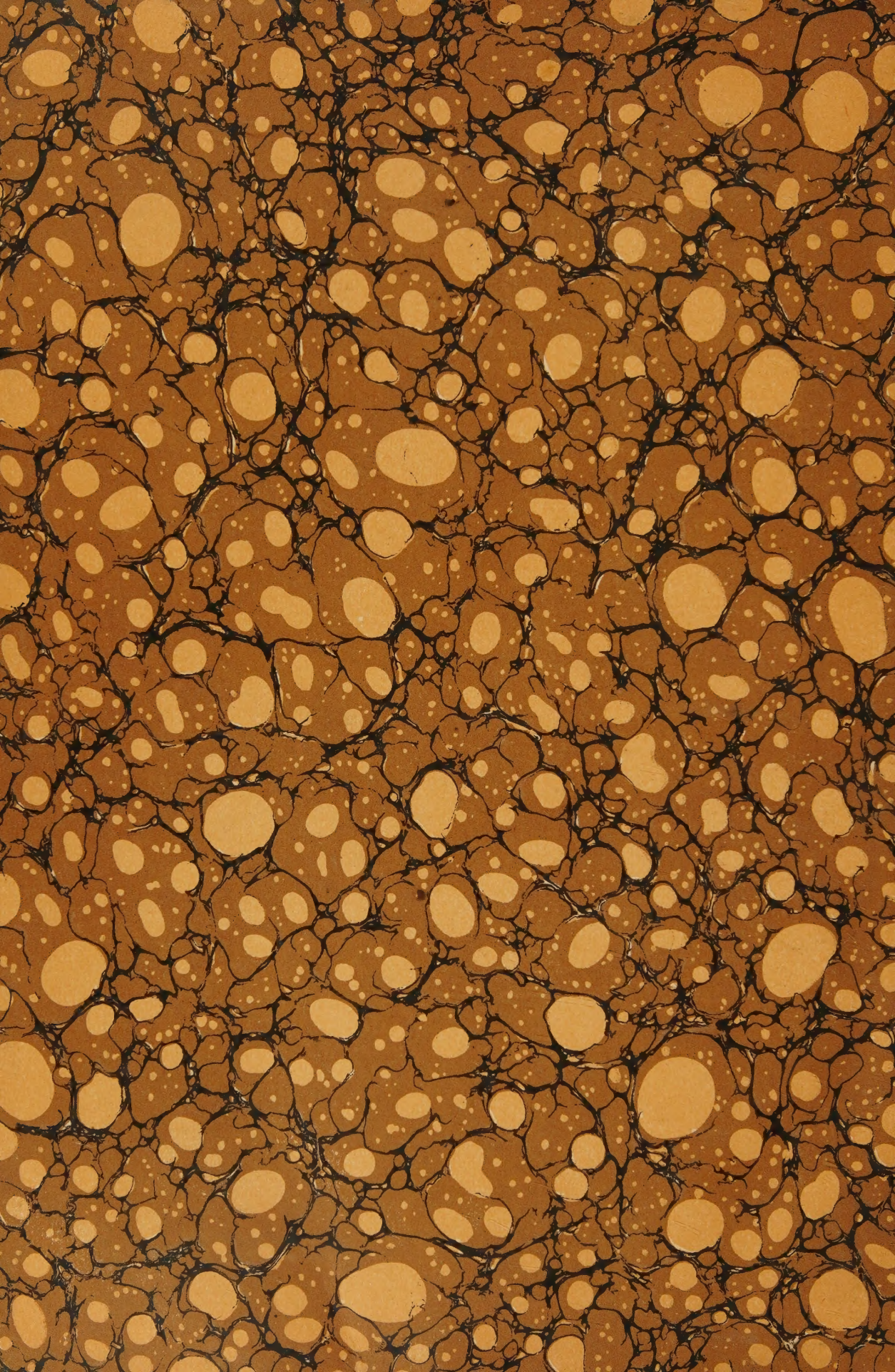
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